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SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN EUROPE

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching has recently published a bulletin prepared by a member of its staff, William S. Learned, entitled, *The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and in Europe*. This bulletin contains a very severe arraignment of the American high school and is full of praise of the European schools of secondary grade.

The value of such a document depends, of course, on the accuracy of its statements. A few quotations will permit the American reader to judge of Mr. Learned's competency as an observer. Speaking of the American high schools, he says:

1. The schools are enormous, especially in cities, where the best-trained teachers are available, teachers who under favorable conditions could do excellent work. In a city like New York the enrolment in a single school may run to over seven thousand pupils. These are not split into coherent groups of pupils and teachers, intimately associated on a homogeneous basis; they operate on a strictly standardized factory plan, even to the punching of a teacher's time clock. With each half-year, class units and teachers are mechanically shifted in an ingenious checkerboard distribution to fit the "program" that will most nearly permit each pupil to take the fragments of subjects that he in his wisdom has selected. . . .

2. The schools are non-selective and undifferentiated with respect to the quality of the pupil. A low average level of operation is the result. Any pupil far below the average of ability may graduate from the elementary school and be received automatically into the next higher institution, where he stands on equal footing with all others—possibly with a poor neighbor's son who may be the most brilliant lad his school ever sent up. Intellectual prince and intellectual pauper make their selections and are grouped promiscuously side by side. They keep step together from four to six years, one doing his poor maximum and the other his fair minimum on material suited to neither but determined by the weaker pupil. Each doubtless "gets something," as the phrase goes, but the capable mind is bored and contracts lazy and wasteful habits, while the other is depressed by continual failure with things too hard instead of encouraged by clear success at his own level. . . .

3. The curriculum is a rope of sand, without texture or organization. Effective education through related ideas is thereby sacrificed to the mere registering of information. This fact will be made clearer later by comparison with genuine curricula. Convinced that knowledge is power, we have assumed that presenting information is identical with conferring knowledge and have hastened to make broad this easy and royal road to an educated democracy. Information on almost any subject can easily be formulated into convenient units. And it is possible for a mind even of very limited powers, if socially docile and inspired by filial duty, personal pride, commercial advantage, or any one of a dozen other extraneous motives, to take in and give out this information in recognizable word or paraphrase without seriously knowing or caring what it is all about. This is positively all that the school, and usually the college, requires, and of this it asks but a fraction—60 per cent. For fear of evaporation, the process is checked up at once—daily recitation, written review, monthly test, and term examination. These concluded, responsibility ceases, and "credit" is recorded, of which no future misstep, even though it discloses total ignorance, can ever deprive the pupil.

There is more of the same kind of unfavorable comment on the American schools, and there is much eulogy of the European schools.

One wonders as one reads the easy judgments of this reformer of American education why he overlooked the fact that the Bureau of Education has been obliged to record the existence of a vast number of high schools which are so small that they encounter grave difficulties arising from extreme limitations of numbers. The American high schools which are "enormous" are so few that it is utterly unjust to make the general statement quoted. It may be true that our schools are characterized by deficiencies and that Europe furnishes examples which we should imitate, but enormous size is not a leading characteristic of American high schools.

The statement made by Mr. Learned about the non-selective character of American education is another painful indication of oblique thinking or lack of knowledge. Anyone who asserts that "any pupil far below the average of ability may graduate from the elementary school, etc.," ought not to be allowed to publish books that will be read in Europe because he will mislead readers, especially if he holds the position of a responsible officer in an institution of importance.

Finally, such statements as those made by Mr. Learned about the curriculums pursued by American pupils exhibit nothing short of confusion of thinking or intemperate prejudice. Mr. Learned has perhaps mistaken the offerings of American high schools for their curriculums. If so, he ought to review the real situation with more care.

What this bulletin has to say about European schools is quite as inaccurate at many points as are the statements about American schools. It is unfortunate that interchange of experience between the great civilizations of the world cannot be effected without the type of distortion that characterizes this bulletin throughout.

THE PROPOSED JOHNSTOWN JUNIOR COLLEGE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

During the spring of 1926 S. J. Slawson, superintendent of schools, Johnstown, Pennsylvania, asked the University of Pittsburgh to consider the establishment of a junior college at Johnstown. Several conferences were held and plans partly worked out.

It developed that there was a question regarding whether or not the Johnstown Board of School Directors had the right to lease quarters to the University. During the recent session of the legislature, the school code was amended, giving the Board of School Directors the power "to lease any part of their respective school building equipment and premises to any university or college of the Commonwealth which shall be approved by the State Council of Education for the purpose of conducting and maintaining therein university or collegiate courses. Such leases shall be subject to the terms and regulations which may be adopted by the board of school directors and shall be further subject to the approval of the State

Council of Education." As soon as this legislation was passed, the negotiations for the establishment of the junior college were resumed, and the plan developed was approved by the State Council of Education, the Johnstown Board of School Directors, and the trustees of the University of Pittsburgh.

The University of Pittsburgh is confronted with the problem of an increasingly large number of students in junior-college work. It is possible that many of the students could be cared for in a better way if a number of junior colleges were established in the larger centers of population in western Pennsylvania. It would reduce the expense to the students and might be a solution of some of the problems which attend dealing with so large a group. Furthermore, it would enable many students to continue their education who cannot now do so, students who would profit from a university education.

There is no doubt but that the junior college is coming in Pennsylvania. It is believed that universities are the logical institutions to do experimental work in this field.

The University of Pittsburgh has agreed to offer the work of the freshman year, beginning in September, 1927, provided at least one hundred Freshmen can be secured. In brief, the Board of School Directors of Johnstown furnishes the quarters and equipment in the new senior high school building, and the University of Pittsburgh conducts the work.

The Johnstown board has set aside administrative offices, classrooms, and chemistry, physics, and zoölogy laboratories fully equipped for junior-college work. The library, the auditorium, and the gymnasiums will also be available for the junior college. The laboratory equipment and library reference texts have been chosen on the recommendation of the University.

The new senior high school building was planned with the thought that it would serve as a senior high school and junior college. The junior-college quarters constitute a unit in the building.

The University of Pittsburgh will assume entire responsibility for the administration, supervision, and instruction in the junior college. The junior college will be under the immediate administration of the director of extension. As in the case of all extramural teaching, the deans of the schools pass on the teaching staff. In fact,

the director of extension expects the dean of the college to recommend the faculty for the junior college.

One member of the faculty will do part-time teaching and act as local director. All members of the faculty will be chosen from the residence staff and will reside in Johnstown. Great care is being taken in the choice of the faculty because upon it largely depends the success or failure of the experiment.

The requirements for admission are the same as those in the case of students entering the University of Pittsburgh on the campus. The tuition is the same as on the campus.

Freshman courses only will be offered the first year. The courses include the general college courses and the courses required of Freshmen by the professional schools of the University. The work will be identical with that given in corresponding courses on the campus.

While the University will establish a junior college by offering only the junior-college courses leading toward senior-college courses, it is expected that special two-year courses of a vocational nature will be added later.

Johnstown is seventy-five miles east of Pittsburgh. It is a town with a population of approximately 75,000, surrounded by numerous boroughs with a population of 225,000. The Johnstown junior college would serve graduates of approximately twenty-five high schools.

F. W. SHOCKLEY

*Director, University Extension Division,
University of Pittsburgh*

POLITICAL INTERFERENCE WITH SCHOOL APPOINTMENTS

Two editorials, one from the *Chicago Tribune* and the other from the *St. Louis Globe-Democrat*, exhibit democracy in process of learning how to control its educational system. The editorial from the *Chicago Tribune* is as follows:

The action of a majority of the school board in regard to the appointment of a music director of the schools is hick-town politics. The candidate nominated to the board by the superintendent was selected by an exceptional committee of experts chosen by leading musical associations—the Chicago Orchestral Association, the Society of American Musicians, Pro Musica, and the National Music Teachers' Association. Twenty-four candidates applied as the result of 452 an-

nouncements sent out to the Chicago schools and to music directors in other cities. Sixteen were from Chicago. They were examined by the committee sitting with the board of superintendents and examiners. Every precaution seems to have been taken to reach a wise judgment, and Mr. Norton was chosen.

Mr. Coath and a majority of the school board brush this judgment aside because Mr. Norton is not a resident of Chicago. Mr. Coath says: "What we want to carry out is a policy of the encouragement of our own people. We want to spend our taxpayers' money on our taxpayers."

We had supposed that the taxpayers' money was paid for the benefit of the school children—all Chicago's children, children of the taxpayers and children of the non-taxpayers. The only intelligent way to spend the taxpayers' money for the benefit of the taxpayers is to spend it for the best service of the taxpayers, in this case for obtaining the best music director for the children.

Mr. Coath's notion is a piece of small-town bigotry which shames a city of the world-rank of Chicago. But it is something more than that; it perfectly illustrates the viewpoint which the men and women who are making mischief in our school affairs are always taking. It is a viewpoint that never focuses on the child. In this case we hear that "our policy is to spend money on home talent." The home talent is the object here, not the children. The job must be given to a taxpayer. The taxpayer is the object, not the children.

The reasoning is moronic. It would be discreditable to a backwoods village trustee, and it is an insult to the intelligence of a great modern progressive community like Chicago.

What the mothers and fathers, the taxpayers of Chicago, want for the children of the public schools is the very best to be had anywhere. That is what they are taxed for, and the cheap talk about home talent is a smoke screen of bunk to hide a betrayal of the only sound principle for school management—always the best we can get for the children.

The editorial from the *St. Louis Globe-Democrat* is as follows:

The public explanation by Superintendent Maddox, before the board of education, of his method of ascertaining the merits of applicants for appointment to teaching in the high and intermediate schools of the city, should put a stop to captious criticism of the appointment system. We believe the best interest of the schools of this city, or of any city, rests upon the application of the principle of merit as the basis of all appointments. The charter under which the board is empowered to govern the public schools commands in specific words that merit shall be the basis of selection, to be ascertained by the superintendent under regulations by the board. The board has made regulations to that end, and they give to the superintendent the authority and lay upon him the responsibility of prescribing "the mode and the subject of the examination."

Under this authority Superintendent Maddox has developed a system of examinations and inquiry designed to draw out every factor of information bearing upon the fitness of an applicant for a teaching position in these schools. It is a

thorough system which leaves little opportunity for error or for the exercise of favoritism. It covers not only the education, the training, and the experience of an applicant but the personal qualities which enter so largely into the question of merit. While, of course, no infallible method of choosing teachers is possible, it would be difficult to devise a method of ascertaining merit more comprehensive and effective than this.

Residence is not a factor of merit, and the superintendent has properly declined to make it one. St. Louis wants the best teachers available, wherever they may come from. But, as a matter of fact, the great majority of appointments are of "home talent" because, naturally, by far the greater number of applicants are from St. Louis teachers, and their abilities on the average are not inferior. The superintendent showed from the records that, of the fifty-seven women recommended by him for appointment to the intermediate schools during the school year just closed, fifty were residents of St. Louis, and forty-three were from the elementary schools. Our own people, says the superintendent, are able to stand up, under competition and under this rigid method of inquiry, "with the best the country has to offer."

Mr. Maddox also showed from the record that the charge that graduates of Washington and St. Louis universities are not wanted as teachers in the higher schools under his direction is without foundation. Thirteen graduates of these universities have been appointed to teaching positions during the past year by the board upon his recommendation, and one of these has a degree from both universities.

The members of the board of education and the superintendent are public officials, and, as such, they and their work are properly subject to examination and criticism, but criticism that is not based upon fact is injurious to the public-school system and is always to be condemned.

The school people of the country can be gratified that Superintendents McAndrew and Maddox appear in the two incidents referred to in these editorials in the rôles of able defenders of professional qualifications as essential to appointment to positions in school systems.

AN EXPERIMENT TO DETERMINE THE VALUE OF HOME WORK

The following paragraphs are quoted from the *New York Sun*.

When students malign home work, they are speaking harshly of a disguised blessing, for home work has a decided bearing on promotion, a recent experiment conducted at the Franklin K. Lane High School indicates. Students who conscientiously do a reasonable amount of home work not only progress at a faster rate than do their home-workless classmates, but they have five times the chance for advancement to the next grade that pupils have who do poor home work or none at all, the results of the experiment show.

The experiment, which is described by Sinclair J. Wilson in the *Bulletin of High Points*, the official publication of the board of education, resulted from a faculty meeting held last September, at which the home-work question was discussed at length. Some of the teachers felt that substantial home-work assignments were essential for a pupil's success. Others said that they had got along with little or no home work. The time consumed by the teacher in checking home work, the careless work submitted by pupils, and the danger of receiving borrowed work showed how defective the scheme of assigning home work is, they argued.

Moreover, the anti-home-work teachers pointed out, students in the evening high schools are doing successful work without much outside preparation, and they proposed that the day sessions follow the lead of the evening schools.

As a result of the discussion, the mathematics department of the Franklin K. Lane High School agreed to conduct an experiment in an attempt to get objective evidence of the value of home work. The result of giving home work four times a week for a period of three weeks to one group of students was to be compared with the result of giving home work only twice a week during the same time to another group.

"We were afraid to eliminate all home work because we felt that the loss of possible values inherent in it might be too detrimental to the pupils relieved of such work," Mr. Wilson explains in his article. "If four home-work assignments were to prove themselves to be of no greater value than two such assignments, we could then trust the teachers to ask for a comparison of the two home-work plan with a no home-work plan."

The experiment, accordingly, was conducted in several classes of first-term plane geometry immediately after the mid-term examination. At this time, according to Mr. Wilson, "pupils are traveling under their own steam, and any interference with the work can be remedied at a later date without too great damage to the pupil's future in geometry."

The students in the classes tested were divided into three groups, the groupings being determined by the students' marks in the mid-term examination. High, low, and average students were grouped so that there was a comparatively equal distribution of ability in each class.

One of these groups was given home work for two days a week, while the other groups had four assignments a week. There was no increase in the amount of work per assignment for the "two" group, but a careful choice of material covered the essential drills.

The two best pupils from each group in every class were appointed as home-work monitors to make the experiment less burdensome to the teacher. This allowed six monitors for each class, giving each monitor five or six pupils. The monitors graded the home-work papers which were handed in as "satisfactory," "unsatisfactory," and "zero," and these marks were kept.

When the three weeks were over, a second test was given to the students. The results showed that the "four" home-work group made greater achievement

gains than did the "two." In the matter of neatness and perseverance in home work, in the "two" group 42.8 per cent of the papers turned in were marked zero or unsatisfactory, while in the "four" group such ratings were given to only 34.3 per cent of the papers.

The experiment also showed that 85 per cent of the pupils doing satisfactory home work were promoted and that 67 per cent of those doing poor home work failed. There were 291 pupils in the classes tested.

"Looked at in terms of the total enrolment reported, the good home-work group had 165 out of 291 chances to pass, while the poor home-work group had but 26 out of 291 chances to pass," Mr. Wilson explains. "The lesson to be drawn here is that a pupil doing good home work has about one chance in two to pass, against one chance in ten for the pupil doing unsatisfactory home work. Put in this way, the good home-work habit should have some significance for a pupil."

Mr. Wilson also points out that students who had home work assigned only twice a week had to have explained certain topics which were studied by the other students during their home-work preparation. At the end of six weeks, teachers of the "two" group found that they had lost at least one week in the syllabus. In the thirty-six weeks of the school year for plane geometry this would mean a loss of six weeks, which cannot be made up for the average pupil, Mr. Wilson writes.

He draws these conclusions at the close of his article.

"Pupils who do four home-work assignments per week, adapted to their abilities and chosen as a step in the learning process, give some evidence of attaining a higher rank, of doing neater and more persevering work, and of traveling at a faster pace than those who do like assignments only two times a week. Pupils who have good home-work records have five times the chance for promotion that pupils have who do poor home work."

RESULTS OF VACATION HIGH SCHOOL WORK

In a mimeographed report prepared by Eugene C. Gibney, director of extension activities in New York City, appears the following statement regarding the success of vacation high school work during the summer of 1926.

Factors contributing to success.—It may be well to call attention again to certain factors to which the success of the students of the summer high schools may properly be ascribed. First, the boys and girls were prompted to give up their vacation by the feeling of a definite need. Second, they took but one or two subjects and were able, therefore, to devote to each a far larger measure of time and thought and more intensive study than is possible when, as in the winter high schools, they have four or five prepared subjects. Third, they were engaged in classroom work for only one or two periods a day and had, in conse-

quence, more free time for study and recreation. Fourth, the eighty-minute period permitted a more deliberate and thorough treatment and left time for teaching pupils how to study and for clinching points made in the recitation. Fifth, many of the repeaters, it is believed, had failed because they were slow and required more than five months to accomplish the work covered by the normal student in a term. The additional two months of instruction obtained in the summer schools enabled them to complete the term's work successfully. Sixth, we had efficient instructors, some of them first assistants in the winter high schools, some elementary-school principals, and all specialists in their fields. Many were teachers of long service and successful experience. None were substitutes. These teachers were devoted to the welfare of their pupils and determined to do all in their power to accomplish the task that had been set them. It was due in large measure to their spirit of co-operation, their loyalty, and their unselfish and tireless efforts in behalf of their schools that the excellent results of the summer high schools were achieved.

Results.—As in previous sessions, the interest of the pupils was keen and sustained. The number of pupils enrolled was 17,685, distributed as follows: Washington Irving Summer High School, 3,794; Boys' Summer High School, 3,539; Evander Childs Summer High School, 2,803; Bryant Summer High School, 1,689; George Washington Summer High School, 2,332; and Erasmus Hall Summer High School, 3,528.

Eighteen thousand eight hundred and fifty-eight certificates were awarded. The percentage of success was accordingly 80.5. The percentages of success in the various high schools were as follows: Washington Irving Summer High School, 79.0 per cent; Boys' Summer High School, 83.2 per cent; Evander Childs Summer High School, 82.0 per cent; Bryant Summer High School, 78.0 per cent; George Washington Summer High School, 77.2 per cent; and Erasmus Hall Summer High School, 77.7 per cent.

Of the 7,586 advance student registrations, 6,288, or 82.8 per cent, received certificates. Of 19,037 registrations as repeaters, 12,570, or 66.0 per cent, received certificates.

Thus, by concentrating on one or two subjects during the summer, repeating pupils removed 12,570 deficiencies, and the obstacles to entrance into college or even to continuance in the home high schools were overcome. In addition to the gain in knowledge and skill thus obtained, the repeating students received a spiritual return. Their vacation work helped to replace the habit of failure by the habit of success, to restore their self-confidence, and to renew their hope. This was, in our opinion, the chief service of the summer high school.

It is possible, of course, that some of these pupils, when returning to the less advantageous conditions of their home schools, may fail to hold the ground they have gained. We should not too hastily conclude from this that the summer's work has been lacking in thoroughness or estimated too generously. There is at least a chance that the pupil who fails needs for his best development in the winter school the slower pace and the more individual attention that he has

found in the summer school. In any event, the sustaining power of repeating pupils who receive credit from the summer high schools must be measured not, as is often done, against the sustaining record of pupils who have not failed but against the record of repeating pupils in the winter schools.

A STATE SUPERVISOR OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
IN NEW YORK

The announcement was made early in the summer that the New York State Department of Education had appointed Harrison H. Van Cott supervisor of junior high schools. In reply to a request from the editors of the *School Review* for more complete information about the purposes of the state department in making this appointment, Assistant Commissioner George M. Wiley wrote as follows:

So far as I know, New York and Pennsylvania are the only two states having a supervisor of junior high schools in their state-department organizations.

The function of this position for the present is largely for the purpose of acquainting ourselves thoroughly with the actual conditions in the junior high schools throughout the state. We have formulated no program and fixed no definite policies of procedure with regard to the further development of the work in this earlier level of the secondary period. We have been spending the past several months acquainting ourselves with what is actually going on in these institutions. Our study has been most interesting and illuminating.

As a result of our work, we are about to issue a bulletin of one hundred or one hundred and fifty pages on the administration of junior high schools in this state. It will contain the outstanding features of the best types of schools in large cities, smaller cities, and large villages where organizations of this type are found.

One portion of the bulletin will contain short articles by outstanding workers in their respective fields covering within a compass of from fifteen hundred to two thousand words each how they are carrying forward their particular activities. These short separate articles will deal with such problems as the place of the library in the junior high school, the organization of clubs, vocational and educational guidance, and other problems of this type of particular interest in junior high school organization.

A second bulletin, which is already under way but which will not appear until autumn, will be entitled, "Curricula in Junior High Schools in New York State." The first bulletin is being prepared by Mr. Van Cott, while the second bulletin is being prepared with his co-operation, but the work itself is being done in our research bureau under the direction of Warren W. Cox.

We may formulate a more definite state policy somewhat later, but at the present time we are most happy with the flexible freedom which the junior high schools enjoy, and we feel that very marked progress is being made under pres-

ent conditions with little central control. There are some features of the work which superintendents and principals feel might well be standardized, but we shall enter upon that phase of our responsibility very conservatively as the development of the work in these schools has been so marked and so satisfactory during the past two or three years.

HIGH-SCHOOL ATHLETICS IN NEW JERSEY

The June number of the *Education Bulletin*, issued by the State Department of Public Instruction of New Jersey, contains an instructive article entitled, "The Status of Athletics in New Jersey High Schools." This article reports the answers received from 150 principals of approved public high schools in New Jersey to an elaborate questionnaire on various phases of school athletics. The summary at the end of the article is as follows:

From the foregoing facts and opinions it is not difficult to discover certain definite trends and agreements to support the following conclusion.

School administrators generally are seeking to place athletics on a curricular basis so far as extending the educational advantages of these activities to the whole school population is concerned. To this end, larger playgrounds are being provided for new high-school plants; larger appropriations are being made by boards of education for physical games and recreation; and intramural sports are receiving more emphasis than extramural sports. When the majority of the schools which belong to the New Jersey Interscholastic Athletic Association are opposed to state championships, the consensus of school opinion is evidently in favor of more interclass contests and neighborhood contests among friendly rivals as opposed to state-wide championships. It is significant that some of the leading schools which have won championships are most eloquent in favor of a new emphasis. Some districts, notably the city of Bayonne, have supplanted all varsity athletics by intramural sports. Schools which claim benefit from the enthusiasm, pride, and loyalty generated by championship participation admit that this is often offset by the accompanying distraction of the student group, the physical injury to certain individuals, and the exploitation of school pupils by the "sporting fraternity."

It is the general belief that all the benefits of team play and competition between teams may be obtained through mass athletics, without eliminating minor activities, such as tennis, bowling, swimming, fencing, gymnastics, and field, interest in which is important for the physical well-being of individuals in post-school life.

Better practices in the administration of sports: (1) More critical medical examination and certification of all children with reference to the types of physical exertion that may be undertaken safely. (2) That special and appropriate medical supervision be provided for girls. (3) That physical-training and health-

education experts take the place of professional coaches. (4) That athletics, like other playground activities, be financed in the regular way through the local boards of education. The latter may act directly or in co-operation with the local governments which control parks and playgrounds.

It would seem from the replies tabulated that the New Jersey Interscholastic Athletic Association might preferably devote its energies to the promotion of the new physical-training and health-education program in co-operation with the State Department of Public Instruction.

HISTORICAL FICTION FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Hannah Logasa, librarian of the University High School of the University of Chicago, and A. F. Barnard, teacher of history in the same institution, have compiled and published through the McKinley Publishing Company, of Philadelphia, a pamphlet of eighty-six pages, entitled, *Historical Fiction Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools*. The pamphlet contains a list of classified, annotated references to historical fiction which can be used in connection with high-school courses in history.

The following paragraphs from the Introduction indicate the character and purposes of the publication.

The lists include those books which are well written from the literary point of view, which are true to history in the large sense, and which have some appeal to the adolescent age. They offer a wide latitude of choice and yet furnish the needed guidance to the student in a field which is largely unknown to him. The wide option gives the student the opportunity to exercise his individual tastes and preferences and gives that sense of adventure which is lacking in required reading. The books are listed topically under the headings corresponding to the basic units which comprise the course in the Survey of Civilization, and by this arrangement it is possible for the student to correlate his reading directly with his class work, if he so desires. Thus, as the course progresses, he may follow the fortunes of his heroes in an imaginative setting, so that they cease to be lay figures and become men of flesh and blood.

It will be seen from the above that the reading is in its essence voluntary, as distinct from what is called "required" reading, in that there is no specific assignment of chapters or pages which are to be covered within a specified period of time. The student may be expected to read a specified number of books, although the wisdom of such a requirement may be open to question, but he is free to choose as to just what titles he shall select for himself. It is also discursive reading, not in the sense that it is desultory but in the sense that it allows a wide range of choice. . . .

In motivating this reading, it is the practice to give the students credit for all books read and to expect some form of report on each book, embodying the

impressions of the reader as to the quality and value of the book. The report is best written immediately upon completing the reading of the book, as the most valuable impressions are evanescent and soon forgotten. It should include some idea of the plot, comment on the interest of the story, the relation of the book to the course or the unit in hand, the opinion of the student as to the value of the book, and any general reflections which he may be interested to record. The class is urged to make these reports perfectly frank statements and to give their spontaneous reactions to the book in hand, and hence it is thought best not to urge too close adherence to any set form for reporting. The report should be brief and to the point, the custom in the department being to use cards, size 4×6 inches, a size larger than the cards used in the card catalogues of libraries. These cards may be kept in filing cabinets or in boxes and consulted to advantage in advising students.

Through this method of accounting, the student may be gradually led to make his reading educative, and not a mere relaxation or way of killing time. The requirement of a report is apt to make for more attentive reading and reading with a purpose. Moreover, the significance of the reading begins to dawn on the reader as he continues to read and to make his reports. The personal contribution of the reader to the class work may be emphasized by reading aloud to the class the best of these reports or reports on unusual books or on those outside the lists. It may be advisable at times to post the list of best readers with the amounts read and some example of the reports written.

It is the practice by class discussion to correlate this reading informally with the regular class work. At frequent intervals, the teacher starts the recitation with a random question as to books read or with a leading question in regard to some particular book. This may lead to a valuable ten-minute discussion of the picture of the tournament in *Ivanhoe* or of the conference between Richard and Saladin in *The Talisman*. Familiarity with the literature is of great value to the teacher in leading the discussion, and such familiarity will rapidly increase by practice in the case of the wide-awake teacher.

These discussions may be used as an educational influence in broadening the outlook of the students. They also furnish an agency in teaching historical mindedness, as the relations of fact and fancy are sure to come to the front. The thoughtful teacher will use them to call the attention of the class to the importance of making distinctions between what is true and what may be imagined to have taken place under actual conditions.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

In an article published in the *University of Virginia Record, Extension Series*, Volume XI, No. 10, Mrs. Robert F. Estes makes a vigorous plea for the library as a part of the working equipment of every school. The article reviews the experiences of numerous high

schools that have conducted libraries and arrives at the following conclusions regarding the school library.

1. That the school library should be accessible, well lighted, and well ventilated in order to assure its reaching the acme of possibilities. Much care should be taken of the organization and the equipment of the school library.

2. That there are two distinct types of school libraries. The first is the reference library, which supplements the formal instruction of the classroom. This library may be in a classroom, or set apart in the general library, or in a room to itself. The second type is the general library, which not only supplements the classroom recitation but offers an opportunity for recreation and good literature as well.

3. That the purposes of the school library are several: (a) to form a taste for good literature, (b) to develop the reading habit so that pupils may be informed about the world and continue their education after their school days, (c) to supplement textbooks, (d) to enrich the daily experiences, (e) to teach the use of books, (f) to develop healthy minds, (g) to assist in vocational guidance, and (h) to stimulate the desire in people to build a library for themselves.

4. That every school should have a library. The library may be built up by getting the pupils interested, by letting the community know the needs of the school, and by raising library funds through entertainments given by the school.

5. That the librarian should have college training supplemented by broad general education and wide reading. Not only are librarians called upon for all manner of information, but their work itself requires familiarity with the literature, history, arts, and sciences of the world. The librarian not only should have training and experience in the technical knowledge required of a high-school librarian but should also be a student of child and adolescent psychology.

6. That the library as much as any other factor in school is helping to give pupils the right kind of training—training that will benefit them when teachers and textbooks are gone. The training they get from the use of the library makes them independent workers. Pupils learn things for themselves; they assimilate facts and know how to use these facts. The library is a ready assistant to every constant course in the curriculum.

THE ACCREDITING OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND

E. D. GRIZZELL^{*}
University of Pennsylvania

With the exception of California and Nevada, the Middle Atlantic states represent the only section of the United States in which the regional accrediting agency has not had its influence. The Commission on Secondary Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland was established in 1920. During the first two years of its existence the commission prepared standards for secondary schools, which were submitted to the association in 1922. After a year of opportunity for discussion and criticism, these standards were adopted by the association in 1923. Three years elapsed before a definite attempt was made to prepare an accredited list of secondary schools. At the annual meeting in November, 1926, the executive committee was authorized to enlarge the commission and to provide ways and means for administering the work of the commission.

A central office of the commission was established February 1, 1927, and since that time a complete program has been formulated, and machinery has been set up for a survey of the schools desiring to be accredited. The Carnegie Corporation has granted a subvention of \$10,000 for carrying on the general accrediting program during the school year 1927-28. State committees have been established to aid the commission in the preparation of the accredited list. These state committees consist of representatives of the more important agencies interested directly in secondary education—a public secondary school principal, a private secondary school headmaster, a member of the state department of education in charge of secondary education, a director of admissions or a registrar of a higher institution, a professor of secondary education, the resident member or members of the commission, and the chairman of the commission.

^{*} Mr. Grizzell is chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.—EDITOR.

The state committee organization provides for the necessary local contacts and interpretation of practices, and the chairman of the commission, as a member of all the state committees, provides the co-ordination which a regional program of accrediting requires.

The standards for secondary schools cover five features: (1) organization and administration, (2) preparation of teachers, (3) the teaching load, (4) program of studies, and (5) physical equipment. Nine standards have been formulated and distributed under these five headings as follows:

I. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Standard 1.—A school to be accredited shall require for graduation the completion of a four-year secondary-school course covering fifteen units. A unit is defined as a year's work in one subject requiring approximately one-fourth of the student's time. It includes in the aggregate not less than 120 sixty-minute hours of prepared classroom work. The minimum length of a recitation period shall be forty minutes exclusive of time used in the changing of classes or teachers. The association recommends a school year consisting of at least thirty-six weeks. Small classes, the distribution of the secondary-school course over a period of more than four years, or excellence of results as measured under Standard 2 shall compensate for a school year shorter than thirty-six weeks.

Standard 2.—The efficiency of instruction, the acquired habits of thought and study, and the general intellectual and moral level of a school are paramount factors in determining its standing, and therefore only schools which rank high in these qualities as shown through systematic, competent, sympathetic inspection, or by achievement of their graduates in higher institutions, shall be considered eligible for the accredited list.

Standard 3.—The association will hold that a sufficient number of qualified teachers must be provided to care adequately for all instruction offered. Not less than the equivalent of the full teaching time of three teachers may be given to academic subjects.

II. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

Standard 4.—The standard of preparation for a teacher of academic subjects shall be the completion of a four years' course in a college approved by this association or in a college of equal rank. Due consideration shall be given to teachers with other than this preparation who have demonstrated their ability through successful experience, provided that at least three-fourths of the teachers of academic subjects meet the standards of preparation.

Teachers should have had professional training or should have had successful teaching experience.

A school to be accredited shall have a salary schedule which is sufficient to secure teachers with the foregoing qualifications.

III. THE TEACHING LOAD

Standard 5.—The number of daily periods of classroom instruction for a teacher should not exceed five. A school requiring of any teacher more than six teaching periods a day or a daily teaching load of more than 150 pupil periods must justify under Standard 2 the deviation from this standard.

In interpreting this standard, a double period of laboratory work or of study-room supervision may be counted as the equivalent of one period of teaching.

Standard 6.—No school with an excessive number of pupils per teacher based on average attendance shall be accredited. The association recommends thirty as a maximum.

IV. PROGRAM OF STUDIES

Standard 7.—The association recommends that every accredited school offer units of work in English, mathematics, foreign languages, social and natural sciences, practical and fine arts, and physical education. Vocational subjects should be offered where local conditions permit.

V. PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT

Standard 8.—The location, construction, and care of school buildings and equipment shall be such as to insure hygienic conditions for both pupils and teachers.

Standard 9.—The laboratory and the library facility shall be adequate to the needs of instruction in the subjects taught.

At its first meeting after its reorganization—April 2, 1927—the commission adopted a statement of policy with respect to the several important phases of its activity. The details of this statement of policy are given as an indication of the functions which the commission hopes to perform.

POLICY OF THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

1. *Purposes of the commission.*—The commission has three important purposes to achieve: (1) to develop a closer relationship between secondary schools and higher institutions; (2) to function as a fact-finding and rating agency in the preparation and maintenance of a list of accredited secondary schools in the Middle States and Maryland; (3) to serve as a clearing-house of information of a professional character concerning the secondary schools of the territory.

2. *The commission as an accrediting agency.*—The primary function of the commission is the selection of schools for the accredited list on the basis of all the facts available and in terms of the standards for secondary schools adopted by the association. The commission recognizes as a closely related function the advising of schools (not accredited) with reference to the improvement of their standards. The commission shall assume the responsibility for proposing modifications in existing standards as the general level of school practice improves.

3. *Relation of the commission to other regional accrediting agencies.*—The importance of maintaining close relations with other regional accrediting agencies is fully recognized. Every effort will be made by this commission to co-operate with the commissions on secondary schools of other regional associations in the solution of common problems.

4. *Relation of the commission to state departments of education.*—The independent status of the commission shall be carefully maintained. Its interests are confined to no particular state but are interstate or regional in scope. Membership of a school on the official list of a state department will be considered as a part of the evidence in determining the rating of the school for the association's list. The commission shall welcome the co-operation of state education authorities in its work and shall in turn co-operate with such authorities in the solution of problems within the range of its activities.

5. *Relation of the Commission on Secondary Schools to the Commission on Higher Institutions of this association.*—It is the desire of this commission to co-operate in every way possible with the Commission on Higher Institutions in the development of a closer relationship between secondary schools and higher institutions.

6. *The commission and research in secondary education.*—The commission shall use every facility available in the study of professional problems related to secondary education. Occasional reports of results of investigations shall be published for distribution to all who are interested in secondary education.

7. *The accredited list.*—Although the commission recognizes that efficient secondary schools perform a number of important functions, one of which is preparation for higher institutions, it assumes responsibility particularly in the rating of schools on the performance of the preparatory function. In thus limiting its responsibility, it does not lose sight of the fact that the several functions performed by the secondary school are closely interrelated. However, the commission is not in a position to assume responsibilities that clearly belong to state educational agencies.

The work already accomplished by the commission is evidence of its seriousness of purpose. The first problem confronting the commission was the preparation of a complete directory of secondary schools within the territory. Every available source of information was used, with the result that a preliminary directory of 3,393 schools was prepared, which was used as a mailing list. All schools (except junior high schools), about 3,200 in number, were approached through a personal letter, which presented the general plans of the commission and an invitation to apply for membership on the accredited list. About seven hundred schools made application at once. A general report form was sent to all applicants for

membership, and a circular of information based on inquiries resulting from the first letter and a second invitation to make application for membership were sent to about twenty-five hundred schools that had not applied. The result of the second invitation has been more than one hundred applications and new ones coming in every day. It is more than likely that the number of applications will exceed one thousand. Table I shows the general situation on August 1, 1927.

TABLE I
TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS APPLYING FOR MEMBERSHIP
ON ACCREDITED LIST

GRADES INCLUDED IN SCHOOL	DELAWARE		DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA		MARYLAND		NEW JERSEY		NEW YORK		PENNSYLVANIA		TOTAL		GRAND TOTAL
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	
7-10...					1				2	1			3	1	4
7-11...					1	1			1	1	3		5	2	7
7-12...	3	2		6	3	11	9	17	64	43	60	28	139	107	246
7-13...								1	6	6		1	6	8	14
7-14...				5	1	2		10	2	22		15	3	54	57
8-11...	1				15		1						17		17
8-12...					1	1	1		2	5	3	3	7	9	16
8-13...										2				2	2
8-14...								1		1	1	1	1	3	4
9-10...											1		1		1
9-11...									1		2		3		3
9-12...	3	3	5	2	7	12	61	9	59	24	150	46	285	96	381
9-13...								1	1				1	1	2
9-14...				4				2	3	12		5	3	23	26
10-12...					2			5			18		30		30
10-13...										1			1		1
10-14...										1		1		2	2
11-12...							1						1		1
11-14...										2				2	2
Unclassified...						1				2		1		4	4
Total	7	5	5	17	31	28	78	41	147	122	238	101	506	314	820

The most encouraging aspect of the work has been the response of the schools in submitting information. The general report form was prepared with extreme care, but, because of the nature of the standards, the report is unusually long and detailed. Moreover, the blanks were not sent to the schools until June 20. In many instances the schools had closed for the summer, and the preparation of the report required considerable time on the part of the principal or head-

master. The seriousness of attitude on the part of the school authorities revealed in these reports is a fine example of the professional interest of the secondary-school men and women of the territory. The supplementary exhibits, many of which are not specifically required, are revealing conditions and practices in secondary education in a very remarkable way. A large number of reports have been received at the central office, where they are being prepared for analysis and presentation to the state committees. In addition to the general report required of all applicants, a supplementary report on teachers will be required after the schools open in September. The commission is planning, also, to send expert representatives to as many schools as possible for a final check on actual school practices.

The real significance of the work of the Commission on Secondary Schools is quite apparent. Probably one of the most valuable results is the effect of the survey on the schools themselves. Aside from the place secured on the accredited list, the "taking account of stock" required of each school is of decided value to the school itself. It is evident in the general correspondence of the schools with the central office of the commission that the schools are conscious of this value. The accredited list should be of special value to schools sending graduates to higher institutions. It will help to eliminate much of the work involved in supplying information required by colleges and universities relating to the schools themselves. In other words, the commission will serve as a clearing-house of information relating to secondary schools, which hitherto could be secured only in part by means of general reports prepared by the schools at the request of the higher institutions. In the same manner the higher institutions will derive real benefit from the work of the commission. Much time and energy will be saved the registrars and directors of admission in determining the status of new schools.

One of the most important services which the commission can render is in pointing out specifically to schools their weaknesses and suggesting desirable improvements in practice. The standards of the commission will become a sort of measuring stick, which the schools may keep constantly before them. Of course, there is lurking herein a real danger, one which the commission must guard against constantly. Consequently, it is essential that the standards be mod-

ified as school practice improves. Although the commission is at present concerned very largely with college-entrance standards, it is important that it shall not lose sight of the other essential functions of the secondary school.

There is great need in the Middle Atlantic states for the collection and dissemination of information concerning secondary-school practices. The commission hopes to function definitely as a research and service agency—a clearing-house of professional information. Although the commission has been active only a few months, the calls for information and the requests for advice and assistance from individuals, committees, organizations, and higher institutions that are received almost daily reveal the need for such an agency. In order that the commission may function effectively in this capacity, special research studies will be carried on in connection with the general program. These studies will be published or otherwise reported at frequent intervals.

The next step in the accrediting program involves the personal inspection of the schools by an expert representative of the commission. If done effectively, this work will require at least the full time of two field workers. The commission plans to begin this work with the opening of the schools in September, 1927. All the data collected will be placed before the state committees early in October as a basis for the rating of the schools. The recommendations of the several state committees will be submitted to the commission for final approval. Special cases will also be referred to the commission for investigation. Unless the work is retarded unexpectedly, the commission will submit its first list of accredited schools to the association at its annual meeting in November.

TITLES OF CURRICULUMS OFFERED OR SUGGESTED IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

CARTER V. GOOD
Miami University

RAYMOND E. GOOD
Dayton High School, Dayton, Virginia

The late Charles H. Johnston was very much interested in clarifying and standardizing the terminology used in the secondary-school field. His last book¹ makes a definite contribution toward this end in the chapter on "High School Terminology." Professor Franklin W. Johnson, of Teachers College, Columbia University, more recently made a similar plea² for uniformity in the terminology of secondary education; he urges that the careful writer differentiate between such terms as "mark" and "grade," "pupil" and "student," and "schedule" and "program of recitations."

Probably in no other aspect of secondary education is there less uniformity than in the selection of the titles of the various curriculums offered. The writers were impressed with this fact as the result of an analysis of a considerable number of high-school programs of studies.

In January, 1927, the writers sent to the chief school officer of each state and the school superintendents of the five largest cities in each state a letter requesting copies of the junior high school and the high-school courses of study or programs of studies in use. The material received consisted principally of information relating to the four-year high school, the senior high school, and the junior high school and of state programs for the secondary school. Many of the printed bulletins or outlines did not contain definitely organized curriculums and therefore could not be used for the purpose of the study reported in this article; such outlines usually were organized on the

¹ Charles Hughes Johnston, Jesse H. Newlon, and Frank G. Pickell, *Junior-Senior High School Administration*, pp. 65-88. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922.

² Franklin W. Johnson, "Educational Terminology," *School Review*, XXXII (June, 1924), 407-8.

basis of constants and electives rather than on the basis of the multiple-curriculum plan.

The cities and states whose programs of studies are represented in the analysis are as follows:

FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS

Birmingham, Alabama	Wilmington, North Carolina
Hartford, Connecticut	Winston-Salem, North Carolina
Columbus, Georgia	Grand Forks, North Dakota
Des Moines, Iowa	Jamestown, North Dakota
Bangor, Maine	Eugene, Oregon
Portland, Maine	Erie, Pennsylvania
Boston, Massachusetts	Auburn, Rhode Island
Detroit, Michigan	Newport, Rhode Island
Duluth, Minnesota	Spartanburg, South Carolina
Minneapolis, Minnesota	Barre, Vermont
Springfield, Missouri	Bellingham, Washington
Omaha, Nebraska	Seattle, Washington
Nashua, New Hampshire	Clarksburg, West Virginia
Jersey City, New Jersey	Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Newark, New Jersey	Laramie, Wyoming

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Boulder, Colorado	Springfield, Massachusetts
New Britain, Connecticut	Flint, Michigan
Tampa, Florida	Lansing, Michigan
Savannah, Georgia	Hastings, Nebraska
East Saint Louis, Illinois	Concord, New Hampshire
South Bend, Indiana	Columbus, Ohio
Davenport, Iowa	

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Washington, D.C.	Concord, New Hampshire
Savannah, Georgia	Nashua, New Hampshire
East Saint Louis, Illinois	Columbus, Ohio
Springfield, Massachusetts	Mitchell, South Dakota
Duluth, Minnesota	Nashville, Tennessee
Hastings, Nebraska	Laramie, Wyoming

STATE HIGH-SCHOOL MANUALS

Delaware	New Jersey
Idaho	Pennsylvania
Indiana	Tennessee
Louisiana	Vermont
Maine	Virginia
Minnesota	Washington
Nebraska	West Virginia

It will be recognized that the cities and states listed provide a reasonably adequate cross section of the country as a whole. In a few instances a city is represented by more than one secondary school at a given level; in a number of instances a city is represented by both junior and senior high schools.

The procedure followed was to copy the exact titles of the curriculums offered or suggested in the various secondary schools. It is obvious that in some instances the titles used are quite similar and that the subjects included in the curriculums under such similar titles are much the same. However, no effort was made to combine such curriculums under a general heading or title since the purpose of the study was to determine the range of the terminology used in selecting titles for secondary-school curriculums. Table I presents the list of titles and shows the frequency with which a given title appeared in each type of secondary school or system.

An examination of Table I indicates that the most frequently used titles for secondary-school curriculums are "academic," "agriculture," "classical," "college preparatory," "commercial," "general," "home economics," "household arts," "industrial arts," "Latin," "manual arts," and "scientific." Many of the titles have a frequency of only one; probably these represent the special interests of single schools or the whims of school officers charged with organizing the curriculums and selecting the titles.

An illustration or two may serve to show how virtually the same type of work and subject matter appears under different titles in the curriculums of the secondary schools of the country. The work frequently offered under the title "home economics" also appears under other titles—"college entrance home economics," "dietetics," "domestic arts," "general home economics," "girls' vocational," "home training," "household arts," "industrial (girls)," and "vocational home economics." Work preparing for teaching appears under the titles "normal," "normal preparatory," "normal school preparatory," "normal training," "teacher-training," and "teachers."

Table II shows the number of curriculums offered or suggested by the various types of secondary schools or systems. The median number of curriculums offered is as follows: four-year high schools, 6; senior high schools, 6; junior high schools, 4; state high-school man-

TABLE I

TITLES OF PRESCRIBED OR SUGGESTED CURRICULUMS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
AND THEIR FREQUENCIES

Title of Curriculum	Four- Year High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	State High- School Manuals	Total
1. Academic.....	2	4	7	4	17
2. Academic industrial.....	0	1	0	0	1
3. Accounting.....	1	0	0	0	1
4. Agricultural arts.....	0	0	0	1	1
5. Agriculture.....	1	0	0	8	9
6. Architectural drawing.....	1	0	0	0	1
7. Art.....	3	0	0	0	3
8. Arts and crafts.....	1	0	0	0	1
9. Auto mechanics.....	1	0	0	0	1
10. Automotive construction.....	1	0	0	0	1
11. Bookkeeping.....	1	1	1	1	4
12. Bookkeeping and accounting.....	2	1	0	0	3
13. Boys' college preparatory.....	1	0	0	0	1
14. Boys' vocational.....	1	0	0	0	1
15. Building construction.....	1	0	0	0	1
16. Building trades.....	1	0	0	0	1
17. Business.....	2	0	0	0	2
18. Cafeteria management.....	1	0	0	0	1
19. Chemistry (industrial).....	1	0	0	0	1
20. Classical.....	9	2	1	3	15
21. Clerical and commercial work.....	0	0	0	1	1
22. College.....	2	0	0	0	2
23. College classical preparatory.....	0	1	0	0	1
24. College entrance.....	1	0	0	0	1
25. College entrance business.....	1	0	0	0	1
26. College entrance home economics.....	2	0	0	0	2
27. College preparatory.....	9	3	1	3	16
28. College preparatory (engineering, archi- tecture).....	0	1	0	0	1
29. College preparatory (liberal arts).....	1	0	0	0	1
30. College preparatory (literature, arts, science).....	0	1	0	0	1
31. College preparatory (pharmacy, medi- cine, dentistry).....	0	1	0	0	1
32. College technical preparatory.....	0	1	0	0	1
33. Commercial.....	23	12	10	9	54
34. Commercial art.....	1	0	0	0	1
35. Commercial art and fine art.....	0	0	0	1	1
36. Commercial clerical.....	1	0	0	0	1
37. Commercial stenographic.....	1	0	0	0	1
38. Commercial telegraphy (Morse).....	1	0	0	0	1
39. Co-operative industrial.....	1	0	0	0	1
40. Costume design.....	1	0	0	0	1
41. Dietetics.....	1	0	0	0	1
42. Domestic arts.....	0	1	1	0	2
43. Eastern college preparatory.....	1	0	0	0	1
44. Electricity.....	2	0	0	0	2
45. Engineering college preparatory.....	4	1	0	1	6
46. English.....	3	1	1	1	6

TABLE I—Continued

Title of Curriculum	Four-Year High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	State High-School Manuals	Total
47. English (college).....	1	0	0	0	1
48. English (general).....	1	0	0	0	1
49. English-science.....	0	0	0	1	1
50. Fine arts.....	3	0	0	2	5
51. Forging.....	1	0	0	0	1
52. Foundry.....	1	0	0	0	1
53. General.....	17	9	3	6	35
54. General business and accounting.....	1	0	0	0	1
55. General home economics.....	1	0	0	0	1
56. General manual arts.....	1	0	1	0	2
57. Girls' college preparatory.....	1	0	0	0	1
58. Girls' vocational.....	1	0	0	0	1
59. History.....	4	0	0	1	5
60. Home economics.....	11	3	1	9	24
61. Home training.....	0	0	1	1	2
62. Hospital work.....	1	0	0	0	1
63. Hotel work.....	1	0	0	0	1
64. Household arts.....	5	2	2	0	9
65. Household arts (catering and institutional management).....	1	0	0	0	1
66. Household arts (costume design).....	1	0	0	0	1
67. Industrial.....	2	1	0	0	3
68. Industrial (boys).....	2	0	1	0	3
69. Industrial (girls).....	2	0	0	0	2
70. Industrial arts.....	1	3	2	3	9
71. Jewelry design.....	1	0	0	0	1
72. Language.....	0	0	0	1	1
73. Latin.....	5	2	2	1	10
74. Latin-scientific.....	1	0	0	0	1
75. Laundry work.....	1	0	0	0	1
76. Literature, science, and arts.....	1	0	0	0	1
77. Machine shop.....	1	0	0	0	1
78. Manual arts.....	6	1	2	0	9
79. Manual arts college entrance.....	2	0	0	0	2
80. Manual training.....	3	3	0	2	8
81. Mathematics.....	1	0	0	1	2
82. Mechanic arts.....	1	1	1	0	3
83. Mechanical preparatory.....	1	0	0	0	1
84. Merchandising.....	1	0	0	0	1
85. Metallurgy.....	1	0	0	0	1
86. Modern language.....	4	0	0	1	5
87. Music.....	2	1	0	1	4
88. Music (general).....	1	0	0	0	1
89. Music (vocational).....	1	0	0	0	1
90. Music and art.....	0	1	0	0	1
91. Non-Latin.....	0	0	1	0	1
92. Normal.....	1	1	0	0	2
93. Normal preparatory.....	1	0	0	0	1
94. Normal school preparatory.....	0	1	0	0	1
95. Normal training.....	0	1	1	1	3
96. Nursing (preparatory).....	2	0	0	0	2
97. Occupational therapy.....	1	0	0	0	1

TABLE I—Continued

Title of Curriculum	Four-Year High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	State High-School Manuals	Total
98. Piano major	1	0	0	0	1
99. Pottery	1	0	0	0	1
100. Practical arts	2	0	2	1	5
101. Pre-engineering	1	0	1	0	2
102. Preparatory	1	0	0	0	1
103. Prevocational	0	0	1	0	1
104. Printing	2	0	0	0	2
105. Radio	1	0	0	0	1
106. Retail selling	2	0	0	0	2
107. Salesmanship	1	0	0	0	1
108. Science	4	2	0	1	7
109. Science preparatory	1	0	0	0	1
110. Scientific	12	3	2	2	19
111. Sheet metal	1	0	0	0	1
112. Shop	2	0	1	0	3
113. Shorthand	0	1	0	0	1
114. Social studies	0	0	0	1	1
115. Stenographic	3	0	1	1	5
116. Stenographic and clerical	0	1	0	0	1
117. Stenographic and secretarial	2	0	0	0	2
118. Teacher-training	0	0	0	1	1
119. Teachers	3	1	0	0	4
120. Technical	3	0	0	1	4
121. Technical (boys)	0	1	0	0	1
122. Technical (girls)	0	1	0	0	1
123. Technical preparatory	2	1	0	0	3
124. Technological	1	0	0	0	1
125. Trades	0	1	0	0	1
126. Vocational	1	2	1	2	6
127. Vocational agriculture	0	1	0	3	4
128. Vocational home economics	0	0	0	1	1
129. Vocational and instrumental music	0	0	0	1	1
130. Woodworking	1	0	0	0	1
Total	234	77	49	79	439

uals, 5; all types of schools combined, 5. All the schools or systems analyzed in the study are represented in Table II except a technical high school offering twenty-one curriculums and a large city system offering thirty-two curriculums.

The writers do not venture to suggest the number of titles under which the curriculums of secondary schools should be grouped. Certainly, any definite effort on the part of those interested in high-school curriculum-making to adopt a more uniform terminology should reduce the number of titles used considerably below 130, the number reported in the present investigation. Probably the number

of curriculum titles could be reduced one-half or even three-fourths. Increased uniformity in terminology should lessen the confusion which may arise when a pupil transfers from one school system to another, when a school officer speaks or writes of his secondary-school curriculums for the benefit of a group of workers from other

TABLE II

NUMBER OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS OR SYSTEMS OFFERING OR SUGGESTING FROM TWO TO ELEVEN CURRICULUMS

Number of Curriculums	Four-Year High Schools	Senior High Schools	Junior High Schools	State High-School Manuals	Total
2.....	1	0	1	0	2
3.....	2	2	3	2	9
4.....	5	0	3	2	10
5.....	6	3	5	4	18
6.....	7	4	0	2	13
7.....	7	2	0	2	11
8.....	2	1	0	1	4
9.....	1	0	0	1	2
10.....	1	0	0	0	1
11.....	1	1	0	0	2
Total.....	33	13	12	14	72

secondary-school systems, or when students of education and investigators canvass the educational offerings of different high schools.

If the problem raised in this report is of sufficient moment to merit further consideration, a movement toward standardization of terminology could probably be most effectively initiated by such professional organizations as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

WHAT OREGON HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS THINK ABOUT THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

F. L. STETSON
University of Oregon

Oregon has been fortunate in the fact that the development of the program of studies for the elementary and high schools of the state has been practically unimpeded by legislative restrictions, there being but four statutory provisions as to specific subjects to be taught.¹ Notwithstanding this situation, the principle of professional determination of the content of the program of studies has not been fully established. The impression having been formed in certain quarters that the high-school graduates of the state were deficient in the knowledge and skill required in the common walks of life, a bill was introduced in the legislature in 1923 and again, with slight modifications, in 1925 which would make obligatory on every high-school pupil in the state the study of "United States history; the history and principles of American constitutional law, in simple form; American literature; the English language, including grammar, composition, rhetoric, spelling, and punctuation; penmanship; bookkeeping; practical operations in arithmetic."

It was also the intention of the author of the bill to eliminate all teaching of sociology, problems of democracy, and similar social-science material.

Although American history, civics, and four years of literature and composition, oral and written, were already included in the program of studies by the state department of education, the bill as a whole aroused vigorous opposition from the educators of the state. It was realized that several important issues were involved, such as the objectives of each division of the school system, the selection of constants in the high-school curriculums, and the desirable extent of curriculum differentiation through electives. It was also felt unde-

¹ Physiology and hygiene, the Constitution of the United States, humane education, and physical exercise or training.

sirable to have further prescriptive legislation regarding specific subject matter without extended expert analysis of the situation.

The opinions of 460 representative Oregon high-school teachers and administrators bearing on these issues are here presented.¹ While subjective only, they give significant information with regard to the thinking of this group on problems of the program of studies. The more important questions and the tabulation of replies follow.

1. As a rough estimate, about what percentage of the first-year pupils coming to you are weak in the required work of the state course for the eighth grade in the following subjects: (a) oral and silent reading, (b) penmanship (70-80 on the Ayres scale), (c) spelling, (d) arithmetic?

2. Are the present eighth-grade requirements of the state course of study, *if they were fully met*, sufficient in your opinion: (a) To give the pupils proper preparation in the "tool subjects" and the basic skills and knowledge needed in the common walks of life? (b) To enable the pupils to do good high-school work?

3. Our schools are sometimes criticized for lack of thoroughness in teaching the fundamentals. Granting that this criticism is true, should the remedy be more thoroughness in the first eight years now allotted to this work or to have the pupil repeat these subjects in the high school?

4. (a) What other subjects would you add to the list now required in Oregon high schools? (b) Which, if any, of the present requirements would you strike from the list and make elective?

5. Spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, and bookkeeping are not included in the list of nine or ten units required for entrance to the typical college, and the first three are not usually accepted as electives. (a) Would you favor the addition of these elementary subjects to the required list in high school, thus reducing free election, especially for the college-preparatory pupils? (b) About what part of a pupil's program should be freely elective?

The replies to Questions 1, 2, and 3 are shown in Tables I, II, and III. Table I is to be read as follows: four teachers reported no pupils weak in oral reading; nineteen, 5 per cent weak; five teachers find practically all entering pupils deficient. The estimates of the percentage of poorly prepared pupils extend from 0 to 95 or 100 for every subject, with median estimates at 20 or 25.

The high-school teachers of the state believe, in the main, that a large proportion of the entering ninth-grade pupils are poorly grounded in the fundamentals, that the state elementary-school

¹These opinions were secured by a committee of the Oregon State Teachers Association in anticipation of educational legislation in 1927.

program of studies is satisfactory in content and standards,¹ and that the responsibility for teaching the fundamentals rests with the elementary school. In other words, five of every six of the teachers distinguish between elementary-school and high-school subjects on the basis of form versus content. Whether this distinction is connected with a definite conviction as to the separate objectives and functions of elementary education and secondary education could

TABLE I
REPLIES TO QUESTION 1

Percentage of Pupils Weak	Oral Reading	Silent Reading	Penmanship	Spelling	Arithmetic
0.....	4	7	9	3	5
5.....	19	18	30	21	11
10.....	48	42	59	64	34
15.....	22	33	33	41	21
20.....	64	39	58	51	48
25.....	53	50	33	58	37
30.....	18	15	30	25	29
35.....	6	12	15	10	3
40.....	20	22	20	18	21
45.....	1	2	2	1	2
50.....	43	49	30	43	27
55.....	1	1	1
60.....	13	17	10	11	6
65.....	1	1	3
70.....	1	2	4	7	6
75.....	11	11	6	4	14
80-90.....	8	10	12	15	9
90-100.....	5	1	4	3	8
Number of teachers reporting...	337	330	357	377	284
Median estimate.....	25	25	20	25	25

hardly be ascertained; incidental comments indicate this to be true in the case of a considerable number of teachers. The opposition to the repetition of elementary work in organized courses in the high school is vigorous, the high school evidently being assumed to render a different type of service.

To a large extent the expressed views have the support of modern educational theory, although it is commonly pointed out that a sharp distinction cannot be made between elementary-school and secondary-school subject matter and that some instruction in the

¹ A careful comparison of the Oregon elementary program of studies with the programs of the other states shows it to be representative of current practice.

fundamentals in the high school is desirable. Doubtless the most reasonable position, one that was taken by a number of teachers, is that the high school must be responsible for *maintaining*, rather than *raising*, the levels of efficiency reached in the fundamentals in the elementary school. This result would be accomplished by incidental teaching and application of skills to new materials rather than by the

TABLE II
REPLIES TO QUESTION 2

	SUFFICIENT PREPARATION PROVIDED BY PRESENT EIGHTH-GRADE REQUIREMENTS OF STATE COURSE OF STUDY	
	In Tool Subjects	For High-School Work
Teachers reporting "Yes":		
Number.....	329	371
Percentage.....	87	91
Teachers reporting "No":		
Number.....	50	37
Percentage.....	13	9
Total number of teachers reporting...	379	408

TABLE III
REPLIES TO QUESTION 3

	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Teachers
1. More thoroughness in the elementary school.....	349	82.5
2. Repetition of work in the high school.....	31	7.3
3. Both 1 and 2.....	40	9.5
4. Neither 1 nor 2.....	3	0.7
Total.....	423	100.0

organization of classes in the fundamental subjects; non-credit "hospital" classes might be established occasionally. It is probable that to prevent deterioration of efficiency already gained in spelling, penmanship, reading, and arithmetic would do much to reduce the criticisms often leveled at high-school graduates.

Ninety per cent of the teachers replying approved the elementary program; yet one-half of them indicated that from 25 to 100 per cent of the entering high-school pupils are weak in the fundamental

subjects. Does this indicate a real case of inefficiency in many elementary schools? Probably not, the data being better interpreted as revealing a serious lack of objective standards for the fundamental subjects. Comparison of teacher judgments within each of ten cities selected at random shows an impressive variation of opinion on Question 1 in nearly every case.

Table IV shows the lowest range in opinions on unpreparedness in each subject, the highest range, and the average range in the ten cities. Where teachers in a single high school scatter from 5 to 80 per cent in their estimates of the number of entering pupils unprepared in a given subject and where the average range in percentages in ten cities is as high as 50, the need of objective standards is obvious.

TABLE IV
LOWEST, HIGHEST, AND AVERAGE RANGES IN OPINIONS IN TEN
CITIES WITH REGARD TO PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS
UNPREPARED IN EACH SUBJECT

	Lowest Range	Highest Range	Average Range
Oral reading.	15	50	32
Silent reading.	15	50	32
Penmanship.	10	70	41
Spelling.	10	75	49
Arithmetic.	5	65	33

The replies to Question 4 are shown in Table V. Lack of agreement on subjects necessary for integration and to meet assured needs is obvious. Of the 408 teachers replying to the first part of Question 4, 72 per cent would make some addition to the required list, and 15 per cent would add as many as three subjects. Suggested subjects not mentioned in Table V were recommended from one to nine times each, including such subjects as ethics, current events, auto mechanics, "how to study," orthoëpy, sex hygiene, citizenship, and typewriting. Mathematics leads in preference, followed by science, history or social science, industrial subjects, and foreign language. The individual justifications for each suggestion in terms of educational objectives and functions would doubtless be an interesting revelation as to professional thinking on the program of studies. It may be inferred that the emphasis on mathematics is to be explained

on the basis of college-entrance requirements and an abiding faith in the disciplinary values of the subject, while the recommendation of science, social science, and industrial subjects is possibly a recognition of the universal and certain values to be derived from selected material in these fields.

Forty-four teachers would reduce civics from a year to a half-year; thirteen teachers would reduce American history similarly, while seventeen teachers would eliminate this subject. In view of the

TABLE V

REPLIES TO QUESTION 4

	Number of Teachers		Number of Teachers
Suggested additions:		Suggested additions— <i>Continued</i>	
Mathematics.....	44	Number suggesting one ad-	
Algebra.....	39	dition.....	89
Science.....	38	Number suggesting two ad-	
Arithmetic.....	36	ditions.....	142
General science.....	28	Number suggesting three	
Spelling.....	25	additions.....	63
World-history.....	24	Total number of subjects	
Penmanship.....	23	mentioned.....	70
Laboratory science.....	20	Suggested eliminations:	
Biology.....	19	English.....	4
Modern language.....	18	American history.....	30
Vocations.....	16	Civics.....	49
Geometry.....	14	Physical education.....	49
Modern history.....	10	No eliminations.....	283
Bookkeeping.....	10		
Social problems.....	10	Total.....	415
Number suggesting no addi-			
tions.....	114		

present emphasis on social science, the dissatisfaction with history and civics as now organized may be significant. The chief objections to physical education are that the work is difficult to administer and that it lacks real interest and purpose.

The replies to Question 4 indicate a tendency to think in terms of subjects rather than curriculums. They also raise a very important consideration as to whether the typical training program for prospective high-school teachers gives sufficient orientation in modern educational theory to enable the teacher to see his subject not as an end in itself but as a means to the realization of certain specific

outcomes, which in turn must be related to the general aims of education.

Four hundred and thirty-nine teachers replied to the first part of Question 5. Of the 439 replies, 48, or 11 per cent, are affirmative; 391, or 89 per cent, are negative. A slight discrepancy in replies was noted; forty-eight teachers answering Question 5a favor the requirement of the four subjects indicated, while the highest number of votes received by any of the subjects in answer to Question 4a is thirty-six. Eight of every nine teachers find no place in the required list for the four subjects, although many would admit them as electives, the first three usually without credit. The direct and

TABLE VI
REPLIES TO QUESTION 5b

Percentage of Program Elective	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Program Elective	Number of Teachers
0.....	8	50.....	73
5.....	1	60.....	9
10.....	15	65.....	2
15.....	7	70.....	3
20.....	18	75.....	10
25.....	111	80.....	1
30.....	54	Total.....	399
35.....	58		
40.....	29		

certain values of bookkeeping are apparently not considered very large for any but those pupils preparing for business or clerical work.

The replies to the second part of Question 5 are shown in Table VI. The median estimate as to the extent of election desirable in a high-school curriculum is 30 per cent, and seven-eighths of the teachers favor 25 per cent or more, thus clearly showing disapproval of the legislation which would reduce electives as a means of eliminating "fads and frills" from the program of studies. This vote is in conformity with the general tendency in curriculum-building, although the 25 per cent of the replies which favor making from 50 to 80 per cent of the work elective indicate an extreme position.

SUMMARY

Data from 460 high-school teachers and administrators in Oregon, one-fourth of those in the state, showed marked opposition to

legislation which would make compulsory the teaching of elementary subjects in the high school, although they believe that eighth-grade graduates are often poorly prepared in these subjects. The lack of objective standards is shown by the wide range of estimates as to the extent of this unpreparedness.

The responsibility of the high school for teaching the fundamentals was not strongly affirmed, the general opinion being that work done along this line should be incidental rather than definitely organized into credit courses.

The present list of required high-school subjects was found fairly acceptable, although numerous additions were suggested, chiefly in the nature of college-entrance requirements in mathematics, science, or the newer social-science material. Agreement on subject-matter values was not extensive.

The differentiating function of the high school seemed to be recognized in the vote for a considerable proportion of elective subjects in the curriculum.

In so far as the study throws light on the curriculum-thinking of high-school teachers, it seems to indicate the desirability of developing and making common to all teachers a more exact and definite body of educational theory which will enable them to make a thoroughly scientific attack on curricular problems. It does not appear unreasonable to ask that there be a rather general understanding by teachers of the main principles of education in a democracy and that they be in a position to interpret effectively modern educational needs and activities to the general public. Trained leadership must come from within the profession, but it depends on the development of scientific rather than impressionistic attitudes.

THE VALUE OF CERTAIN HOME-ECONOMICS COURSES AS A MEANS OF GENERAL EDUCATION

AGNES FAY MORGAN
University of California

There is little doubt that so new and flexible a group of studies as those classed together usually under the name "home economics" must be frequently reviewed, rearranged, and added to and subtracted from in order to keep them in line with school progress and with changing social customs and necessities. Only twenty years ago the home-economics departments were making their beginnings as generally accepted members of the public-school system and as desirable and even necessary parts of college and university organizations. Ten years ago these departments had achieved an unquestioned place in the upper grades of the elementary schools and in the high schools. Five years ago a barely perceptible rift in the onward sweep of development began, and today, with certain objectives undeniably achieved, outspoken criticism by administrators and pupils alike is audible in the more progressive centers. It is plain that a new alignment of home-economics courses is needed, at least in some school systems, if the social service which they abundantly offer is to remain available and acceptable.

Recent criticisms of home-economics courses.—Numerous possible reasons for the decrease in approbation may be cited. The first criticism of home-economics courses voiced by an intelligent and unprejudiced high-school principal in a recent public discussion is that both subject matter and method are duplicated in succeeding grades. He mentioned, also, too much use of deferred values, too little recognition of the varying psychology of adolescent girls, too much emphasis on skills in senior high school work, not enough attention to capitalization of modern scientific devices of general interest to young people, not enough recognition of the fact that consumers' rather than producers' intelligence is required in the modern house-

hold, too much "kitchen" in the home, too narrowly restricted courses, and not enough vocational courses. It is obvious that several of these criticisms are mutually exclusive, but underneath each there is surely a grain of dissatisfaction founded on some inadequacy in the home-economics work carried on for the last twelve years under this executive's observation. It is the object of this article to analyze so far as possible the causes of discontent and to offer a relatively new point of view as to the function and method of home-economics teaching.

Possible reasons for the decrease in home-economics progress.—Four chief reasons for the less important place assumed recently by home-economics studies in senior high school curriculums appear. In the order of importance, these are: (1) the establishment of one or two years of these studies in the curriculum of the junior high school; (2) the adoption of a certain amount of home-economics material and method as part of the content of several other departments—for example, civics, art, and general science; (3) the increase in the proportion of high-school pupils who are preparing for college through a prescribed curriculum of academic subjects; (4) the relative slowness with which home-economics teachers have adapted their material to changing domestic and social conditions.

1. *The junior high school.*—The growth of the junior high school movement has been phenomenal, and there are today few city systems in the United States which have not changed some at least of their schools to the 6-3-3 plan of organization instead of the 8-4 plan. In many of the school systems having the former grade grouping the curriculum is fixed for all pupils through the ninth grade, or at least only a small amount of election is allowed. In some cases a state course of study is prescribed for the first nine grades. In many cases this prescribed curriculum includes one or two years of home-economics instruction for girls in the junior high school. Whatever may be the merits of this prescription, it apparently sometimes results in diminished enrolment in similar courses offered as electives in the senior high school years. This effect may be considered by some a reflection on the success of the teaching of the junior high school subjects. The writer believes, however, that the real reason is more fundamental and subtle. The difficult adolescent psychology of the

girls plays a part here in some cases, but probably a more important factor is the natural but mistaken assumption on the part of senior high school advisers that the field has been sufficiently covered in the junior high school.

In view of the increased demands of the modern home for intelligence in social, economic, and hygienic choices rather than for manual skills, the place for instruction in most home-economics subjects would seem to be in the senior high school and in the college rather than in the junior high school. The desirable solution appears to the writer to be a decrease, if necessary, in the amount of time spent on this work in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades and a strong offering of electives in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades and in colleges and universities. Manual skill has interest for nearly all junior high school girls but little for many older girls. Such cooking and sewing and house-cleaning practice as is taught should therefore be given before the tenth grade. The more abstract and challenging phases of the subject should be presented after the ninth grade.

2. Increase in use of home applications by other departments.—

Concerning the second reason listed as contributing to the lessened rate of growth of enrolment in home-economics courses, little need be said. The change in content of many high-school courses has been obvious for several years. Without change in name, the general-science course has in many schools become practically a household-science course; chemistry and physics have invested themselves with all the familiar domestic applications which their teachers can muster; and the art departments in some schools have become costume-design and dressmaking centers.

There is no reason for home-economics teachers to feel anything but gratification at this sincere form of flattery. The trend of high-school courses away from the abstract exercise of reason and toward material and activities familiar and interesting to the pupils is a fact to be deplored or applauded according to one's point of view. The writer is inclined to deplore this wholesale reversal for the sake of the minority who are capable of the more difficult and intellectual form of study. The use of familiar and domestic applications, however, cannot be said to furnish the chief reason for a decline in qual-

ity of instruction. Indeed, as will be shown later, the use of these references may be the basis of effective teaching of fundamentals. In any case, a remarkable transformation of function seems to be taking place in high-school courses, particularly in the high-school science departments. So much popularization has invaded many of the "pure" sciences through "capitalization of the radio, the automobile, etc.," that in many cases only scattered information is the result, with little or no attention to problem-solving and the inculcation of the scientific method. The former approach through abstract mediums only and the present entertainment seem to have failed lamentably in making science a vital part of secondary education. Attention to this condition has been pointed out many times by thoughtful observers of science-teaching. In a monograph published in 1920 the following illuminating statement appears.

It is the belief of many of us that the whole elementary and secondary curriculum needs revamping in terms of the degree to which, intellectually at least, it can contribute to the development of the scientific attitude. The pure sciences, introduced lower in the school curriculum, have failed to do this. The applied sciences give far greater promise of being the vehicle by which this outcome can be obtained. On the intellectual side, therefore, it is the point of view of the writers of this monograph that the great opportunity of home economics is to recognize its function as the central applied science of the curriculum.²

In the seven years that have passed since the monograph quoted was published, a ludicrous intensification of the situation so succinctly stated has occurred. The "pure" sciences have so hastily become applied sciences that little but the applications seem to have survived. In a more emphatic sense than was true in 1920, home economics may gird itself to take up in some measure the neglected task of teaching the scientific method.

3. *Increased importance of college-preparatory curriculums.*—The third reason mentioned as possibly contributing to the decreased prominence of home economics in the senior high school is the increasing proportion of pupils who use the high school as preparatory to college entrance. The enormous increase in college enrolments which has been maintained steadily since 1919 has been reflected

² Mabel Barbara Trilling and Others, *Home Economics in American Schools*, p. 70. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 14. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1920.

plainly in the high schools. Since most of the colleges and universities have set up certain subjects as necessary for entrance, the tendency in the more pretentious city high schools has been toward the promotion of these subjects. The social desirability of a college education has become part of the public tradition in America today in so overwhelming a way as to overbalance considerations of suitability and common sense. Many young people elect college-preparatory curriculums in high school without either the industry or the intellect actually to attempt a college course. The extent to which college-entrance requirements may influence high-school curriculums has been stated in detail in many places. In a report recently published by the American Association of University Professors, an excellent if somewhat conventional treatment of the subject of preparation for college is followed by the recommendation "that all college entrance be placed upon the basis of comprehensive examinations in four fundamental subjects [English, mathematics, a foreign language, and Latin or a science], with flexibility in the other requirements and acceptance of school certificates for them, plus a full consideration of school records, intelligence tests, and personal testimonials."¹ The effect of this recommendation on the curriculums of such high schools as may give it consideration will depend on the meaning given to the words "comprehensive examinations." If the four subjects mentioned must each be covered in the high school by three or four years of instruction, at least twelve of the fifteen entrance units will be used up by them. The amount of election left is too small to be entitled to any serious consideration.

The writer is inclined to criticize the option of Latin or science in the list of fundamental subjects. Evidently the committee had in mind the selection of tool subjects with the open implication that the high-school course is in all senses subordinate to the later college work, that it is a suspended, rather empty interval of getting ready to learn and do things of significance. The more intelligent candidates for college entrance are likely to rebel against this complacent mandate, and its avowed purpose of selection of the best for the colleges may therefore be defeated to some extent. In any case, it is a

¹ "The Selection, Retention and Promotion of Undergraduates," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XII (October, 1926), 468.

question whether the ethics of modern civilization can be served adequately even for these selected few by a program of adolescent education which does not include a natural science. In the opinion of the writer, such natural science is most effectively taught, at least to girls, by a properly planned home-economics course. This opinion applies with even more weight to the group of girls who are not preparing for college.

4. *Lack of adaptation of home-economics courses to modern home conditions.*—The fourth reason cited to account for the halt in senior high school home-economics courses is the relative slowness with which teachers of these courses have modified their methods and subject matter to conform to changing home conditions. The frequently quoted "cooking and sewing" interpretation of education for the home has remained the bulwark of most such instruction in spite of the fact that, in many city homes at least, these operations are no longer the chief concerns of the housewife. Sewing in particular has diminished greatly in importance. A certain amount of cooking must inevitably remain to be done even in the most conveniently located and equipped homes. The duty of selecting the food and the clothing of the family as well as the furnishings of the home remains in the hands of the housewife. That the larger share of the care and direction of children is hers also should be considered in the formulation of courses directed toward improving her performance.

In recent years much has been said about this enlargement of the home-economics field. In the report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education appointed by the National Education Association, the committee on home economics stated that, in order to accomplish the aims of general home economics in the elementary and high schools, "it is necessary to develop skill in the use of household materials, utensils, and machinery; to inculcate such personal habits and standards as to foods, clothing, and surroundings as will insure good physical health; to train in thrift, economy, and business methods that the pupil may appreciate the problems confronting the administrator of the family income; to apply to daily life the fundamental laws of beauty of color, line, and form."¹

¹ *Reorganization of Home Economics in Secondary Schools*, p. 4. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 5, 1922.

This statement implies the use of many methods and techniques far removed from manual dexterity with foods and fabrics. In the five years since the report was published progress has been made in the direction of expanding and liberalizing the courses offered.

It has seemed to the writer, however, that changes have been made largely as the result of pressure from without rather than as the result of the forethought of the home-economics directors and teachers. When the enrolment in cooking classes in the senior high schools fell off, courses in dietetics, house management, and child welfare were substituted in the hope of regaining the pupils. Perhaps this is the logical way in which progress in the applied subjects is made. In any case, it is obvious that it is the usual course of events not only for home economics but for civics, science, art, English—indeed, most high-school subjects. The pattern of modern society constantly changes; the pupils' interests change similarly; and the educational world meekly follows with the necessary readjustments.

A newly proposed function for home-economics studies.—Although the thesis which is here offered is not new, it is presented at this time not only because it is consonant with sound educational theory but because it appears to fit neatly into the present high-school situation. Briefly put, the thesis is that home-economics courses should be able to serve two purposes, that of training for home duties and responsibilities and that of more effective instruction in certain fundamentals. The concept that learning is accomplished most readily by participation has long been recognized. Out of this concept have grown the laboratory idea and the project method. The use of domestic applications and problems for the inculcation of certain ideas important to general education is only a further development of this important generalization. This concept is set up as a rational compromise between the extremes of educational fundamentalists and vocationalists. A grasp of fundamentals is indeed recognized as the end and aim of education, since without such grasp the necessary adjustments to changing modern conditions are difficult if not impossible. Ready-made formulas which fit the problems of the moment are of no more enduring value in home economics than in any other field of human activity. Fundamentals which are taught without constant reference to their applications apparently do not register

any lasting impressions. Abstract studies are often taken "without hunger," and, as Pawlow said of food, such a meal is slow of digestion and productive of discomfort. The same principles and problems translated into terms familiar to the pupil are considerably more likely to remain fixed in his mental equipment.

An understanding of the scientific method, it will be admitted, is of more value than the remembering of information obtained by others through the use of that method. Yet few high-school science courses are organized so as to teach the method first and the information incidentally. Courses dealing with the scientific side of the problems of the home should furnish an excellent opportunity for the correction of this situation, since the nature of the material makes the choice of the inductive method obviously desirable. Indeed, if one views these courses solely from the point of view of their usefulness in the solution of practical home problems, this method is the only effective one because domestic conditions at present are subject to so much change that unchanging principles can furnish the only guide to future solutions. If, on the other hand, one looks at these courses as the medium of education rather than the end in themselves, the same conclusion is inevitably reached.

The writer is conscious of the fact that textbooks embodying the principle here advocated are not generally available, but there are signs apparent that this need will be met in the not distant future. When proper books of this sort are published, a practical and important step in the progress of home economics will have been taken.

Four fields of development in home economics.—The details of specific fields in which home-economics studies may be made the vehicle of fundamental instruction cannot be taken up here. It is obvious that at least four types of thought are available—(1) the *scientific* studies involving the physics and chemistry of house management, of foods, and of textiles; the bacteriology and biology of foods; and the chemistry and the physiology of nutrition; (2) the *artistic* studies, including costume design and construction, home construction and decoration, and design in all the accessories of everyday life; (3) the *economic* studies, including particularly the economics of consumption; (4) the *social* studies, including community and civic responsibilities, the organization of the family, and child care.

At least one important course in each of these fields should be offered by the home-economics departments of our modern high schools and should be properly accredited among the courses required for graduation from high school wherever such specific requirements are laid down. Similarly, the courses should be so taught that they may be included among those accepted as preparation for college entrance. If the College Entrance Examination Board eventually turns its attention to the preparation of suitable examinations in some or all of these courses, a desirable standardization will result.

The division of subject matter between junior and senior high schools.—Sharp division between the material to be taught in these four fields in junior and senior high schools should be established (1) because duplication is only too common and (2) because the compulsory-education laws in most states now make it possible to assume continuous attendance of the majority of pupils throughout a large part of the entire secondary-school period. The division should be made on the basis of the capacities, interests, and needs of children of the various ages involved.

Home economics in the junior high school.—In the junior high school, "exploratory" courses are usually recommended. Girls from twelve to fifteen years of age are still in the stage of acquiring manual skill; they like to make things, to play, to compete. They are not yet self-conscious and repressed. They may be taught cooking and sewing operations as a means of acquiring co-ordination and self-expression as a creative outlet. The teaching of health habits as drill or competition belongs in the junior high school, as do child care and home nursing so far as the mechanics of these operations are concerned. Table-setting and table service may be taught as play activities but perhaps not so well as later. Girls of this age like to make garments and hats, stencils for curtains, and lamp shades; to paint furniture; and to weave. Through these activities good taste may be inculcated.

Home economics in the senior high school.—The more abstract values of home economics—scientific nutrition; physical and chemical principles; and the psychological aspects of child care, family life, and community responsibility—belong in the senior high school for girls from fifteen to eighteen years of age.

The kind of instruction acceptable to senior high school pupils and to girls of this age particularly is different indeed from that properly used in the junior high school. In each of the four fields described as suitable for development through home economics, a wealth of material, both applied and abstract, awaits organization into such useful forms.

1. The scientific method may be made real for the pupils through everyday problems in which they are interested. For example, how can the subject of the nature of solution, that is, the beautiful demonstration by van't Hoff of application of the kinetic theory of gases to substances in solution, be better learned than through studying the boiling points of sugar syrups and the freezing points of ices and ice-creams? Is there any better way of studying the laws of life of micro-organisms than through food preservation and yeast action and the relation of diet to intestinal flora? The laws of thermodynamics, conservation of matter and energy, may be introduced through calorimetry and the measurement of the production of human energy. All the science work given should, of course, be taught through laboratory problems and should be free from opinions and smug derivations.

2. The art courses should teach the fundamentals of design and color theory and of the history of civilization and culture through the study of dress, house furnishings, utensils, and house and garden plans. All art courses actually attempt to do this but in a groping, indirect way. The functioning of such training in later life seems more likely if the fundamentals are taught by means of home-economics materials.

3. The economics courses should teach fundamentals through problems of income, should go back to definitions and sources of wealth, and should include an intelligent study of the production of household commodities, involving consideration of questions of labor and capital, advertising, credit, and applied research in manufacture. The relation of agriculture to finished commodities, tariff, and other legislative matters, such as pure-food laws, should be studied with reference to their effect on retail prices. All the work should be planned to increase consumers' intelligence, a sadly needed

aid in these days of high-pressure and instalment-selling organizations.

4. The social courses should teach the structure of society and the state through the householder's responsibilities. The important group of concepts related to family integrity, marriage, and child welfare and training belongs here. It is obvious that this field is as yet largely untilled, but interest in it and material for it are accumulating rapidly. The American Social Hygiene Association is sending a syllabus on sex relations to selected home-economics departments in the hope of embodying something of the kind in our present teaching. If the senior high school is to teach anything with reference to this important subject, it must be taught in home-economics courses. Here the matter can be approached naturally and without self-consciousness, in the right relation to other social problems, and with that air of casualness which appears indispensable for success in such an undertaking.

The titles of the proposed courses.—It is plain that boys as well as girls might profit by instruction in some or all of these four fields. Particularly is this true of the scientific and economic phases. The choice of titles for the courses therefore presents a somewhat ticklish problem since the use of the word "home," "household," or "domestic" might decrease the chance of enrolling boys. The offering of this material in other departments—for instance, in the science, social-science, or art department—is, of course, possible and is indeed in effect here and there, but the final purpose of this type of instruction cannot be served in this way. By retention of the word "home," a certain sanction of the school is conferred on the home. The present tendency away from home activities, amusements, and interest, which is so often deplored, is opposed by the development of frankly domestic ideals and operations in the school curriculum. Words are powerful, and the names of things are often of tremendous importance to young people. The use of the nomenclature of home economics is therefore strongly advised, and its social importance pointed out, particularly when such courses are recognized as of fundamental educational value.

A few tentative suggestions for the names of these courses are as follows: for the scientific course, household science, food and nu-

trition, chemistry of the home, or household chemistry; for the art course, household art, design in everyday life, or applied art; for the economics course, household economics, home management, household administration, or economic problems of the home; and for the social course, the family, child care, child welfare, or social problems of the home.

In California, where certain minimum requirements for graduation from high school have been set up by the state board of education, two of these courses have already been included among those which may be offered in satisfaction of part of these requirements. (1) A course entitled, "citizen-homemaking," dealing with the social and economic problems of the home, is accepted as satisfying one unit of a social-economics major. The major consists of a related group of three units, and one major must be offered by each candidate for graduation. (2) A course in "laboratory applied science," dealing with the physical and chemical phases of home problems in foods, nutrition, textiles, etc., is accepted as one unit of a science major and as the one unit of laboratory science required of all candidates for graduation from high school.

Here we have a definite step in the right direction but one which has not yet been followed up adequately by most California high schools. Evidently the recognition of home economics as a vehicle of sound general education as well as an important contribution to social and practical domestic efficiency is only in its beginnings.

ORIGIN OF THE ENROLMENT OF THE COUNTY WHITE HIGH SCHOOLS IN TENNESSEE

JOE JENNINGS

Director of Research, Public Schools, Knoxville, Tennessee

All the high schools in Tennessee with the exception of those in a few of the largest cities are organized and classified as county high schools. According to the latest report of the state commissioner of education, there were enrolled in the county white elementary schools of the state 380,000 pupils; in the city white elementary schools, 115,000 pupils. Approximately 60,000 of the pupils in the city white elementary schools were enrolled in cities having high schools organized as county high schools. In theory, at least, the elementary schools that fed the county high schools enrolled 440,000 (380,000+60,000) pupils. Approximately 160,000 of these pupils, or 36 per cent, were enrolled in one-teacher schools; 110,000, or 25 per cent, were enrolled in two-teacher schools; and the remaining 170,000, or 39 per cent, were enrolled in schools with three or more teachers and in city systems.

In order to find out the origin of the enrolment of the county white high schools, a careful study was made of the annual reports of the high-school principals for the year ending June 30, 1926. There were 550 county white high schools in the state, enrolling 40,000 pupils. Two hundred and twenty-nine of these schools were four-year high schools, which enrolled approximately 80 per cent of the entire high-school enrolment. Unfortunately, not all the high-school principals filled out that portion of the annual report which contained the information used in this study, but it is believed that the conclusions reached would not have been materially altered had all the principals given the information.

The first question considered in this study was: To what extent are the one-teacher schools, the two-teacher schools, and the larger schools furnishing pupils for the four-year high schools? Table I

shows the enrolment of 180 four-year high schools distributed according to the type of school in which the pupils received their elementary education.

If all the different types of elementary schools had been equally efficient in graduating their pupils and in sending them to high school, the percentages of pupils enrolled in high school from the different types of elementary schools would correspond with the percentages of the total elementary-school enrolment in the different types of elementary schools. To illustrate, 36 per cent of all the elementary pupils were enrolled in one-teacher schools; hence 36 per cent of the high-school enrolment would have come from one-teacher schools if all types of elementary schools had been equally effi-

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF 20,101 PUPILS IN 180 FOUR-YEAR WHITE HIGH SCHOOLS
ON THE BASIS OF THE TYPES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ATTENDED

Type of School	Boys	Girls	Total	Percentage
One-teacher schools.....	602	701	1,303	6.5
Two-teacher schools.....	967	1,179	2,146	10.7
Schools with three or more teachers and city systems.....	7,242	9,410	16,652	82.8
Total.....	8,811	11,290	20,101	100.0

cient. Table II strikingly shows the ineffectiveness of the one- and two-teacher schools in sending their pupils to high school as compared with the larger schools.

Table II shows that, while 36.0 per cent of the total elementary-school enrolment was in one-teacher schools, only 6.5 per cent of the high-school enrolment came from one-teacher schools. While 39.0 per cent of the elementary-school enrolment was in schools with three or more teachers, 82.8 per cent of the high-school enrolment came from schools with three or more teachers. Pupils enrolled in schools with three or more teachers and in city systems are approximately twelve times as likely to go to high school as are pupils in one-teacher schools; they are approximately five times as likely to go to high school as are pupils in two-teacher schools.

The second question considered in this study was: What is the average distance from the home of the pupil to the high school?

Two hundred and nine high schools reported on the average distance of the homes of the pupils from the school. Half of this number reported that the average distance was under two miles. Sixty-four schools reported an average distance of from two to three miles. The remaining schools reported an average distance of more than three miles. These figures indicate that an overwhelming majority of high-school pupils live within a short distance of the schools which they attend.

The third question considered in this study was: What proportion of the pupils enrolled in the high schools of the state come from the associated elementary schools? One hundred and ninety four-year high schools reported a total enrolment of 17,021 pupils,

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN EACH TYPE OF SCHOOL AS COMPARED WITH PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN HIGH SCHOOL FROM EACH TYPE OF SCHOOL

Type of School	Percentage of Total Elementary-School Enrolment in Each Type of School	Percentage of Pupils in High School from Each Type of School
One-teacher schools.....	36.0	6.5
Two-teacher schools.....	25.0	10.7
Schools with three or more teachers and city systems.....	39.0	82.8

7,448 boys and 9,573 girls. Of these pupils, 10,878, or 64 per cent, came from the elementary schools associated with the high schools. This number included 4,690 boys, or 63 per cent of the total number of boys, and 6,188 girls, or 65 per cent of the total number of girls. In other words, but little more than one-third of the total enrolment of the four-year high schools of the state came from places other than where four-year high schools were located. The 190 associated elementary schools enrolled 53,949 pupils. Combining the number of pupils in the associated elementary schools with the number of pupils in the 190 high schools who came from the associated elementary schools gives a total of 64,827 pupils. Approximately 17 per cent of these 64,827 pupils were enrolled in the high schools. In Tennessee as a whole little more than 8 per cent of the entire school enrolment is in high school.

The following summary statements may be made.

1. The pupil enrolled in a one- or two-teacher elementary school is far less likely to enter high school than the pupil in a larger elementary school.
2. The average pupil enrolled in high school lives within a surprisingly short distance of the school which he attends.
3. Nearly two-thirds of the total enrolment of the four-year high schools in Tennessee is drawn from the associated elementary schools.

It is evident that the very large majority of pupils enrolled in the four-year high schools in Tennessee come from the elementary schools associated with these high schools and from the elementary schools located within a short distance of the high schools. In other words, the average four-year high school in the state serves only its immediate locality. If universal high-school education in Tennessee is realized, four-year high schools must be placed within reasonable distance of all elementary schools.

ADVISORY GROUPS IN LARGE HIGH SCHOOLS

F. E. LONG

Washington University, Saint Louis, Missouri

M. C. GRIGGS AND S. A. DOUGLASS

Central High School, Saint Louis, Missouri

In an attempt to determine the present function of the advisory, home-room, or roll-room system in large high schools, a questionnaire was sent to 350 high-school principals in cities of fifty thousand population or more. One hundred and ninety-six replies were received.

TABLE I
BASES OF ASSIGNING PUPILS TO GROUPS

	Number of Schools*	Percentage of Schools
Term in school.....	87	50.6
Curriculum	36	20.9
Sex.....	32	18.6
Random selection.....	19	11.0
Elementary school from which pupil came.	17	9.9
Alphabetical classification.....	10	5.8
Intelligence quotient.....	9	5.2
Selection by pupil.....	6	3.5
Total.....	216

* Since some schools use more than one basis of classification, the total is greater than the number of schools reporting the use of advisory groups.

One hundred and seventy-two of the principals reporting (88 per cent) use the advisory system. Whether this system is equally common in all the schools to which the questionnaire was sent is undetermined. It is quite possible that a higher or lower percentage of replies came from schools using the system.

Considerable variation in practice is shown by the answers to the question, "What method or methods do you use in assigning pupils to groups?" (Table I)

Eighty-eight schools (51 per cent) transfer pupils from one ad-

visory group to another, while eighty-four schools (49 per cent) keep the groups intact throughout the entire school course.

The size of the advisory groups and the length of the meetings of the advisory groups are shown in Tables II and III, respectively.

TABLE II
DISTRIBUTION OF 136 HIGH SCHOOLS ON THE BASIS OF THE
SIZE OF THE ADVISORY GROUPS

Number of Pupils in Each Group	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
20 or less.....	2	1.5
21-25.....	23	16.9
26-30.....	53	39.0
31-35.....	52	38.2
36 or more.....	6	4.4
Total.....	136	100.0

TABLE III
DISTRIBUTION OF 108 HIGH SCHOOLS ON THE BASIS OF THE
LENGTH OF THE MEETINGS OF THE
ADVISORY GROUPS

Number of Minutes	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
10 or less.....	49	45.4
15.....	24	22.2
30.....	13	12.0
45 or more.....	22	20.4
Total.....	108	100.0

In 154 schools (89.5 per cent) the advisory groups meet daily; in 10 schools (5.8 per cent) they meet at irregular intervals. Eight principals (4.7 per cent) did not indicate when the groups meet.

In meeting the parents of the pupils there is considerable variation in practice. In 121 schools (70.3 per cent) the advisers have no prescribed or suggested plan for meeting parents. In 104 schools (60.5 per cent) the advisers exchange letters with parents when occasions arise. In ten schools (5.8 per cent) the advisers plan definitely to meet parents at meetings of parent-teacher associations and other group meetings. In five schools (2.9 per cent) visiting teachers work in co-operation with the advisers.

One hundred and thirty-one principals (76.2 per cent) reported that the meetings of the advisory groups are conducted by the pupils. Fifty-eight schools (33.7 per cent) use parliamentary procedure with pupil officers in charge; and six schools (3.5 per cent) use parliamentary procedure, allowing the pupils to preside in turn according to a roster.

It proved difficult to tabulate the answers to the question, "What is the business conducted in your advisory meetings?" However, Table IV indicates the general nature of the routine activities.

Special programs are given in the advisory rooms in all but thirty-nine schools. In these thirty-nine schools the special programs are provided for in the general assemblies. Under "special

TABLE IV
TYPES OF ROUTINE ACTIVITIES CARRIED ON IN MEETINGS OF ADVISORY GROUPS

Activity	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Making special announcements.....	140	81.4
Reading office bulletins.....	135	78.5
Taking attendance.....	131	76.2
Arranging and supervising pupils' programs.....	129	75.0
Gathering data for school office.....	125	72.7
Conducting school elections.....	118	68.6
Discussing special topics of political, social, or economic nature.....	82	47.7

programs" are classified such activities as the programs preceding legal holidays, celebrations of school victories, observance of education and fire-prevention weeks, and "pep" meetings.

Advisory groups are rated or marked in various ways for the purpose of stimulating group activities. Table V shows the criteria used in marking the groups.

In fifty-nine schools (34.3 per cent) the advisers are responsible for finding summer and after-school employment for the pupils. In ninety-four schools (54.7 per cent) the advisers do not assume this responsibility. Nineteen principals (11.0 per cent) failed to answer the question.

In general, the advisers are not rated as advisers alone, but it was indicated that such rating is included in the general rating of the efficiency of the teachers.

Sixty schools (34.9 per cent) have printed instructions for the advisers.

The advisers control participation in extra-curriculum activities as shown in Table VI.

TABLE V
CRITERIA USED IN RANKING OR MARKING ADVISORY GROUPS

Criteria	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Scholarship	100	58.1
Attendance	86	50.0
Tardiness	84	48.8
Subscriptions to school publications	83	48.3
Sale of tickets to school affairs	70	40.7
Contributions to school publications	47	27.3
Extra-curriculum activities	34	19.8
Deposits in thrift bank	7	4.1

TABLE VI
FUNCTION OF THE ADVISER IN THE CONTROL OF PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN
EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

Function	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Suggests the activities for pupils	62	36.0
Attempts to discover and develop latent ability	79	45.9
Limits the amount of activity in accordance with the scholarship of the pupils	78	45.0

In fifty-three schools (30.8 per cent) the advisers give a character rating of their pupils. In ninety-one schools (52.9 per cent) the advisers do not make such a rating. Twenty-eight principals (16.3 per cent) did not answer the question.

THE SELECTION OF THE PROPOSITION FOR DEBATE

WALTER H. ADAMS

Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Texas

One of the most troublesome problems connected with high-school debate is the selection of a suitable proposition for debate. That mistakes are often made in the selection of the proposition is quite evident when a study is made of the questions that were discussed in various high schools during the past year. It is the purpose of this article to formulate criteria by which suitable propositions may be selected.

Two fundamental principles may be set down on which there is absolute agreement. First, no one will deny that the proposition should be such that it will be in keeping with the objectives of high-school debate; that is, the proposition must be such that, by a careful study of it, pupils will be trained in their ability to organize material in a logical manner, and it must be one that will lead to an interesting presentation of a logical argument before an audience, delivered for the purpose of convincing the hearers of the truth or falsity of the proposition. Second, all will agree that the proposition should be technically correct.

The second principle is generally understood and needs little discussion. This does not mean that it is any the less important. In fact, it is surprising to note the large number of violations of this principle on the part of those who have to do with stating propositions. Especially is this surprising when it is remembered that any one of a large number of modern textbooks in argumentation and debate presents in detail the technical requirements of a proposition for debate. There is little difference of opinion among authorities as to these requirements.

Since there is practically universal agreement on this principle and since the requirements of a proposition for debate are readily accessible in any of a number of textbooks, it is unnecessary to enter

into a long discussion of them. They may be summarized in the following rules.

1. The proposition should be stated in the form of an assertion.
2. It should be debatable.
3. It should not employ ambiguous terms.
4. It should not be too broad.
5. It should not be double-headed.
6. It should give to the affirmative the burden of proof.
7. It should not be question-begging.

It can be said without fear of controversy that a proposition for debate that is not so framed as to be in keeping with these rules should be discarded. It will be seen that many of the questions that are being debated at present would not be used were they judged in the light of these rules. In one state the following question is being debated: "*Resolved, That Congress should promptly enact agricultural legislation that would insure to the producers of staple agricultural products a price exceeding the world price by the amount of the tariff thereon for that portion used in the United States, and providing for losses on the exportable surplus by means of an equalization fee against each product.*" This question is at fault not only because it is ambiguous and perhaps too difficult for high-school pupils but also because it is double-headed.

To illustrate further, the writer was once called upon to debate the proposition, "*Resolved, That the production and distribution of coal and oil in the United States should be controlled and regulated by the federal government.*" There are at least six different debates tied up in this one proposition. After proving that the production of coal should be controlled and regulated by the government, one would have to prove the same for the production of oil. It would then be necessary to prove that the distribution of each should be controlled and regulated by the federal government. To make matters worse, the opponents might admit that the production and distribution of coal and oil should be controlled by the government but contend that such should not be regulated, or vice versa!

That debate directors should be thoroughly familiar with the technical requirements and rules for stating a proposition cannot be emphasized too strongly. Knowledge of these requirements and

rules will eliminate many of the evils at present connected with debate.

Of equal importance with the foregoing but of greater complexity is the principle that the proposition should be in keeping with the objectives of debate. The principle just discussed has to do with the statement of the proposition after the topic or subject for debate has been chosen. If a few definite and well-defined rules are kept in mind, the task is relatively simple. The problem to which we now turn has to do with the subject for debate, presenting a question on which very little material is available but which is of particular importance.

Practically all that has been written on this phase of the problem, in addition to what might be included in the technical requirements noted, may be summarized by saying that the proposition should be of interest to the speakers and to the audience before whom the debate is held. That this is an essential requirement, an absolute necessity if the program is to be a success, there can be no doubt. No one thing has been more detrimental to high-school debating than the selection by a state committee of a proposition that is not only incorrect technically but uninteresting to both speakers and hearers.

This necessity for the interest element in debating is but an illustration of a principle that is present in every phase of human activity. The singer may be, technically speaking, a master of his art, but, if he is to be applauded by the multitudes, the *great mass* of the people, he must sing those songs in which there is "popular interest." If the orator is to be well received by the masses, he must present facts in a logical manner, and the facts which he presents must possess an element of "popular appeal." The debate platform offers an excellent opportunity for disseminating information on public questions, but this information will be received, and will be of value, only to the extent that it is of popular interest and in keeping with the vicissitudes of real life.

The Lincoln-Douglas debates are representative of the greatest debates in history not only because the participants later achieved prominence but because the debates were on a question that was of vital interest to the people.

The term "popular interest" as used in connection with debate must not be misunderstood. In their effort to arouse the interest of the pupils and of the community, some coaches choose questions for debate that are undesirable. To be of compelling interest, a proposition must be vitally significant to the debaters and to the audience. It must be one on which they desire information and which they believe will help them in solving a problem with which they are confronted. An illustration will clarify this idea. The following question has been debated repeatedly by high-school and university students: "*Resolved*, That the United States should join the League of Nations." There was a time when this was a suitable proposition so far as interest is concerned, although it is doubtful whether it would meet all the requirements for a high-school proposition. It was being discussed by the people in all parts of the country. It was a national question, but it was of such a nature that the average person in every community was interested in it because he realized that its solution would vitally concern him. While correct technically, this proposition would not be a suitable proposition for debate at the present time because the people are no longer interested in it to the extent that they desire further information about it. The problem is settled so far as the average person is concerned. Students no longer have a desire to study the problem because they realize that it is not being discussed by the people as it was at one time.

The following question has recently been debated ("discussed" is a better term to use) in a number of universities: "*Resolved*, That we have more to fear than to hope for from science." While this question might be appropriate, as someone has suggested, for a discussion at a dinner table, it is technically incorrect and therefore not suitable as a question for debate. From the standpoint of interest, it would not be suitable for a high-school debate because the question has not arisen from the "tossings and the uncertainties" of the actual life of the pupils and the general public. It would not be "real" to the pupils nor to the audience before whom they would be called upon to debate.

In one state at the present time there is considerable agitation for the adoption of the county-unit method of school administration. This is a question in which the people of a community are vitally in-

terested because nothing concerns them more than do the schools. It is a question that is of real interest to the pupils because their welfare is involved. Such a question as the following therefore meets every requirement for a proposition for high-school debate: "*Resolved*, That the county-unit method of school administration should be adopted in the state of ———." It is technically correct and is of interest to both the pupils and the general public.

It is only through an appreciation of this secondary function of debating—to disseminate information on questions of the day—that the element of interest will always be present. While the primary function of debate is to train pupils to analyze a proposition and to present a logical argument before an audience for the purpose of winning the hearers to the debaters' way of thinking, this secondary function will serve as an excellent means of motivating debate and will aid in a realization of the primary function.

There are two types of debate questions—questions of policy and questions of fact. Is one type to be preferred to the other? Again, either type of question may be a question of local, state, or national interest. Would one be better suited for high-school debate than the others? Or, either type of question may be a social, economic, or political question. Should this have anything to do with the selection of the proposition?

In an attempt to solve these and other problems, the writer sent a questionnaire to thirteen outstanding men in the field of argumentation and debate in the United States. That part of the questionnaire with which we are here concerned is as follows:

In each of the following divisions indicate the order of your preference for types of propositions for debate by high-school pupils.

1. _____ One of national interest
 _____ One of state interest
 _____ One of local interest
2. _____ Social
 _____ Economic
 _____ Political
3. _____ A broad, philosophical question, as, "*Resolved*, That we have more to fear than to hope for from science."
 _____ A question of policy, as, "*Resolved*, That the United States should grant the Philippine Islands their independence."

There was absolute agreement on the third part of the question. Eleven of the men ranked the two illustrative propositions, and each of them gave first place to the question of policy, "*Resolved*, That the United States should grant the Philippine Islands their independence." There can be no doubt that such a proposition offers greater opportunities for pupils to be given training in analyzing and presenting a logical argument before an interested audience than does a broad, philosophical question or a question of fact. That debate directors recognize this fact is evident from a study of the propositions that are being debated in the various state debating leagues at present.

There was some diversity of opinion as to whether questions of social, economic, or political interest should be selected. Six of the

TABLE I
RANKS ASSIGNED TO SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL
QUESTIONS BY SIX RECOGNIZED AUTHORITIES

TYPE OF QUESTION	AUTHORITIES						AVERAGE RANK
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
Social.....	2	1	1	1	1	2	1.3
Economic.....	3	2	2	3	2	2	2.3
Political.....	1	3	3	2	3	1	2.2

twelve men replying did not rank these items, saying that there is no choice and that it does not matter so long as the questions are technically correct and of interest to the pupils. Table I gives the ranks assigned by six of the authorities.

A study of Table I shows that social questions have been given first preference by the men who ranked the items. Of a possible six first places, social questions have been given four. The results tend to show that questions of social interest would be preferable to the others although by no means should it be inferred that questions of economic or political interest should not be used.

Of greater importance is the question regarding propositions of local, state, or national interest. In this case there is substantial agreement among the authorities. Eight of the twelve men replying ranked the items in the order of their preference. The results are

given in Table II. It will be noted that six of the eight men gave first place to local questions, while only one placed these questions last. State questions and national questions have practically the same average rank, although state questions were given second place by six of the eight men.

It should not be inferred that questions of national interest should be discarded. It must be remembered that the guiding principle should be whether or not the question possesses elements of interest for the pupils and the audience and whether the question is so stated that the pupils can organize and present a logical argument. As previously illustrated, a proposition may be of national interest and yet be vitally significant to the people of a particular communi-

TABLE II
RANKS ASSIGNED TO LOCAL, STATE, AND NATIONAL QUESTIONS
BY EIGHT RECOGNIZED AUTHORITIES

TYPE OF QUESTION	AUTHORITIES								AVERAGE RANK
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	
Local.....	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1.4
State.....	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	2.3
National.....	1	3	3	3	3	2	1	3	2.4

ty. The following question is such a proposition: "*Resolved, That the child-labor amendment to the federal Constitution should be adopted.*" It is of national importance; yet there is scarcely an individual who would not be affected either directly or indirectly were the amendment adopted. It is of local as well as national interest and importance.

One of the outstanding criticisms of the present method of conducting debates is that unreal situations are presented to the pupils when they are compelled to debate questions that are far removed from their experiences and interests. In later life the pupils will be called upon to settle local problems more often than national problems; that is, they will be called upon to take an active part in discussing and sometimes debating the questions that arise in their immediate community. It stands to reason, therefore, that they should

be given the opportunity to debate such questions while they are in school.

Three hundred debate coaches, chosen at random from the high schools of eleven different states, were asked to state their preferences for local, state, or national questions. The replies of 149 who answered the questionnaire may be summarized as follows: Fifteen prefer local questions; twenty-seven, state questions; and fifty-seven, national questions; fifty indicated no preference. It is surprising that only a small number favor the use of local questions and that there is a decided preference for national questions. This fact can evidently be accounted for in one of two ways. In the first place, debate coaches have been accustomed to having their pupils debate national questions most of the time. The proposition debated is usually selected by a state committee, appointed by the state debating league, and it is necessary for this committee to select a national question in order to avoid favoring a particular section of the state. In the second place, debate coaches favor the use of a national question because they believe that it will be easier to find material on such a question.

The last statement presents another matter that should be mentioned as a principle that should govern the selection of a proposition for debate in the high school. Only those propositions should be chosen on which the debaters may find ample material. This principle is important not only because better debating will result but because less help will be given the debaters by the coach. This does not mean, however, that questions of local interest should be barred. On the other hand, local questions present excellent opportunities for the debaters to make personal and original investigations. The training secured in this way is much needed by the average high-school pupil because there is a tendency for him to rely too strongly on the opinions of others, doing little or no independent thinking for himself.

A third fundamental principle that should be mentioned is that the selection of the proposition should be left to representatives of the schools which are to engage in the debate. Under the plan that is in vogue in most states, the schools have little or nothing to do with

choosing the proposition. So long as this practice continues, undesirable propositions will be debated. The practice will continue so long as state debating leagues exist for the apparent purpose of choosing a state champion in debate.

The preceding sentence presents a problem that demands particular attention. It is the belief of the writer that the program of debate in most states should be reorganized. This reorganization should follow one of two plans. The program should be similar to that in Michigan, where no school is eliminated from competition until it has debated at least four times, or it should follow the conference plan used in Oklahoma. The latter plan is preferable; it presents fewer problems provided a sufficient number of conferences are formed. Regardless of the plan adopted, it should not be necessary for a school to win in order to continue debating.

Three principles have been formulated which should govern the selection of the proposition for debate in the high school. First, the proposition must be such that the study and discussion of it will lead to a realization of the objectives of debate. This involves the selection of (1) a proposition of interest to both speakers and hearers, (2) a question of policy rather than a question of fact, (3) a question of social interest, other things being equal, (4) a question of local interest, other things being equal, and (5) a question on which there is available material. Second, the proposition must be technically correct. This involves the selection of a proposition (1) that is stated as an assertion, (2) that is debatable, (3) that does not employ ambiguous terms, (4) that is not too broad, (5) that is not double-headed, (6) that gives to the affirmative the burden of proof, and (7) that is not question-begging. Third, the selection of the proposition should be left to representatives of the schools which are to engage in the debate.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A new basic text on secondary education.—The past decade has doubtless more than doubled the number of previously existing books on the American high school. It is significant to note that few of the recent books concerning the general field of secondary education have equal authority with Inglis' *Principles of Secondary Education*, which appeared in 1917 and which is still a standard reference. Professor Douglass has recently published a general text¹ which is no less authoritative and which brings Inglis' work up to date. It represents the same careful attention to primary sources and follows somewhat the same organization.

Such departures as Douglass has made from the organization of Inglis' text represent changes in the organization and purpose of secondary education itself during the last ten years. The departures from the earlier organization are thus significant. The chapter titles added by Douglass tend to suggest the important developments during the past decade. The contribution of the later book consists in the new data relative to such trends.

Like Inglis, Douglass divides his treatment into three parts. Part I describes the American system of education as a whole and the place of the high school in this system. Chapters are devoted to the origins of the high school, its relation to the elementary school and to the college, college-entrance requirements, the high schools of Europe, and present problems of reorganization. Part II presents findings of recent research concerning the high-school population and adolescent traits. Well-chosen data are supplied with respect to mental and physical characteristics of adolescence, individual differences, elimination, and guidance. Part III concerns the curriculum and comprises half the volume. Chapters are organized on the basis of the "seven cardinal principles (or objectives) of secondary education" instead of on the conventional basis of the different high-school subjects.

The treatment of the high-school curriculum is apparent in the following list of chapter topics: aims and objectives of secondary education, selection of curriculum materials (including an excellent discussion of transfer), the fundamental processes, education for citizenship, education for home membership,

¹ Aubrey A. Douglass, *Secondary Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. Pp. xxxiv+650. \$2.75.

moral training, use of leisure time, health education, vocational training, the program of studies, and extra-curriculum activities. The effect of such organization is obviously to depose the various fields of subject matter from their traditional positions as ends in themselves and to subordinate each subject to the social ends it is best able to serve. The chapter on fundamental processes, for example, is concerned with the use of books, oral and written expression, the effect of foreign languages on English, drawing as a means of expression, mathematical computation, basic principles of science, and study habits. The other chapters similarly discuss the relation of several subjects to the one social objective which the chapter treats. The result is an evaluation of curricular materials that emphasizes not merely the values peculiar to the various subjects but also the supplementary values resulting from effective combination of the subjects in a well-constructed curriculum. Discussion of the different subjects within each chapter is so organized that the reader primarily interested in one particular subject may identify discussions of that subject in whatever chapters they appear.

The shift of emphasis from the values of individual subjects to social objectives is the outstanding feature of the book as compared with Inglis' treatment of similar data. Other noteworthy additions to Inglis' data concern the nature of the high school as a social institution, such as standard-test data to define more objectively the accomplishment levels of sixth-grade pupils on which the secondary school must build, recent evidence concerning the functions and contributions of the junior high school and junior college, an account of the reorganization taking place in higher education, including teachers' colleges, and recent facts concerning college-entrance requirements. Though less marked, the additions to Inglis' data concerning the high-school pupil are no less extensive. The contributions of widespread research in the field of individual differences are utilized to confirm tentative reforms in administration and to justify an extensive program of guidance. The three chapters devoted to guidance reflect the same point of view that has been mentioned in connection with the curriculum; that is, the facts concerning the school population are organized with reference to social ends and to the school practices by which these ends may be realized.

The text is helpfully indexed. It is supported by an excellent bibliography, in which primary sources are well represented. As in other volumes of the series (*Riverside Textbooks in Education*), the chapters are followed by problems and exercises.

Taken as a whole, Douglass' treatment is somewhat less philosophical than Inglis' treatment of the same principles of secondary education. The subordination of subjects to social objectives tends likewise to subordinate much that is precious in the traditions of scholarship to the more practical considerations of what learning can be acquired by the pupil of average abilities. Ideals of scholarship as such should be preserved for all pupils capable of responding to them, and the sacrifice of such ideals to social expediency would be hard to compensate

by temporary improvement of social conditions. Professor Douglass' method of attack is abundantly justified, however, by the extent to which it will convince intelligent critics of the American high school that the institution is defined by the needs of social majorities and is primarily an instrument for social betterment. The needs of the gifted few constitute a different problem, which still remains to be solved in harmony with the wider social functions of secondary education.

DOUGLAS WAPLES

A textbook on psychology within the comprehension of high-school pupils.—Psychology has traditionally been a difficult and abstruse subject, dreaded by all but the more bookish students and relegated to the junior or senior year in college. The reasons commonly given for this fact have never seemed quite convincing. Psychology is not really more abstract than mathematics, physics, biology, or economics. In directing attention to the study of one's own organism, it is not running counter to all the interests of youth. On the contrary, it conforms to one of the strongest. Two of the important reasons are doubtless that psychology has usually employed unnecessarily ponderous and forbidding terminology and that it has dealt unduly with such sterile matters as mere definition and classification rather than with the real issues of life. The author of *Practical Psychology: Human Nature in Everyday Life*¹ believes rightly that psychology can be made both vital and comprehensible to advanced high-school pupils.

The book is one of the textbooks in the social studies edited by L. C. Marshall and L. S. Lyon. It aims to acquaint the high-school pupil with the laws of human behavior, as the other books of the series acquaint him with the facts of society, of which he is a member. The two are complementary.

After two introductory chapters, which treat of the problems and methods of psychology and of the bodily structures which are closely related to mental functions, the author immediately attacks the important subject of habits, their formation, fixation, elimination, and operation. This is in sharp contrast to the common practice of devoting long chapters to the minute analysis of sensation, a topic which is chiefly of speculative interest. In Part III is given a short treatment of the more practical aspects of perception. Part IV deals with ideation, including chapters on "Ideas and Concepts," "Memory," "Imagination," and "Reasoning." The remaining chapters treat of feeling and of the individual.

The book is an example of excellent textbook construction. At the beginning of each chapter are given the main topics which are to be dealt with and two or three questions which are to be kept in mind in reading the chapter. At the end are a summary, a set of problems, and a selected list of references. The style is simple and direct. An abundance of everyday examples clarifies the meaning and stimulates interest. It may be that the author at times expresses

¹ Edward Stevens Robinson, *Practical Psychology: Human Nature in Everyday Life*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xii+480.

opinions on issues concerning which there is little scientific evidence and on which the opinion of one careful observer is about as good as that of another; but, if this is a fault, it is an excusable one in a book intended for relatively immature students. The book is a good piece of work, and its appearance will probably stimulate the study of psychology in high schools.

FRANK N. FREEMAN

A survey of the development of physical education.—Emmett A. Rice, of the Normal College of the American Gymnastic Union, has recently given to students of physical education a much-needed and valuable textbook¹ in the history of this important phase of education. This compact volume is divided into two parts of about equal length, the first relating to the evolution of physical education in Europe and the Orient from ancient times up to the present. The author treats briefly of the place that physical training held in the life of the chief nations of antiquity, particularly the Greeks and the Romans. He then pictures the contrasting ideals of medieval asceticism and chivalry and sketches the later growth of interest in the development of the body that was evoked by the efforts of the humanists, realists, and educational naturalists. The most important movements in Europe since 1800 are discussed in the chapters on Germany, Scandinavia, and Great Britain.

Part II traces the history of physical education in America, especially the movements of the last seventy-five years; chapters are devoted to such factors in the development as the turners' associations, the Swedish and other gymnastic systems, athletic sports, the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A., and physical education in colleges and universities and in secondary and elementary schools. The recent expansion of the program of physical education to include school hygiene and health education, the wide use of playgrounds, and adequate provision for the training of teachers is given due recognition and brings the story down to the immediate present.

The author has wisely chosen to present not only the evolution of practices in the field but also the evolution of theory and ideals. Appropriate illustrations and quotations and suggestive bibliographies enhance the value of the book.

Unfortunately, a considerable number of minor errors have crept into the book. The sections on China and India are too fragmentary and superficial to be of much value; this appears to be due to the encyclopedic character of the treatment and to the author's failure to consult some of the source materials easily available. On page 165 the title of Brown's book is incorrect. The singular number of the verb is required in line 14 on page 215, and misplacements and omissions occur at the bottom of page 104. The arithmetical calculation at the end of chapter xxii is incorrect. Perhaps, too, some of the numerous citations

¹ Emmett A. Rice, *A Brief History of Physical Education*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1926. Pp. xxiv+276. \$2.00.

would command greater respect on the part of the reader if more definite information were given as to the sources from which they are taken.

In spite of the mistakes to which attention has been called, the book appears to be worthy of the commendation with which Professor Elmer D. Mitchell closes the Foreword: "The student now has a popular-priced textbook within his reach; one that gives an impartial treatment of the different systems, one that has the modern historical method of stressing movements and causal relationships rather than dates and personal histories, and one that is both scientific and readable" (p. xxii).

DAVID GUSTAFSON

Investigations in the teaching of science.—Gradually there is becoming available for the guidance of science teachers and of those interested in the training of science teachers a number of practical scientific investigations in the field of the teaching of elementary and secondary natural science. Two recent publications are of special value.

The first¹ is a digest of investigations and "represents an endeavor to include the learning studies in elementary and secondary school science published before 1925; but no attempt has been made to include all of the curriculum studies" (p. vi). The author has used the form of digest adopted by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in its third yearbook, giving for each study a brief statement of the problems, a description of the technique employed by the investigator, and a summary of the findings. Digests of seventy studies compose the body of the book. The first twenty pages contain a list of questions and exercises based on the studies. These questions and exercises "are of the sort which the author has found to be helpful to students interested in studying various practices and techniques in educational research" (p. 3).

Dr. Curtis has rendered a distinct service in this excellent compilation. His selection of studies and his treatment of them are highly commendable. He has not neglected to cite references to the original studies for those who may wish to turn to them for complete accounts. The task has been so well done that one may safely predict the use of the book as the basic reference book in teacher-training courses in science the country over. To add to the reader's satisfaction, the author plans to publish from time to time other books bringing the work up to date. If teachers will carefully study this publication and acquire the spirit of investigation and the techniques suggested by the various studies, the future of a science of teaching natural science will be brighter.

The second publication² relates to the field of secondary-school biology.

¹ Francis D. Curtis, *A Digest of Investigations in the Teaching of Science in the Elementary and Secondary Schools*. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co., 1926. Pp. x+342.

² Charles William Finley, *Biology in Secondary Schools and the Training of Biology Teachers*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 199. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. Pp. 80.

Part I considers the aims, the status, and the sequence of biology courses in the high school. After tracing the important changes in the aims in botany, zoölogy, and physiology, the three traditional biological subjects, the author gives a brief résumé of the nature of general biology, which has been more recently introduced into the high-school curriculum. Biology teachers will be particularly interested in the classification of the recent biology texts into two types: (1) those having subject matter oriented chiefly in the separate biological sciences and (2) those having subject matter oriented in topics, that is, the blended or general course, in which plant life and animal life are studied as a unit. The second section of Part I is composed mainly of statistical tables showing the percentages of schools offering various sciences and the percentages of the sciences offered in the various years of the high-school curriculum.

The source of the material for Part I is largely the biology textbooks of different periods and articles in educational journals: There is but little that is new in this part of the study, although, in fairness to the author, it should be said that he leaves the reader with a clear idea of the development and present status of biology in the high school. This is all that the author's purpose requires. Two criticisms of Part I present themselves. First, it would make for greater clearness if all the nine tables bore titles; only two have titles. Second, the data presented do not make evident two statements included in the conclusions: (1) "In the junior-senior high school general science and general biology are found in the junior high school" (p. 31). (2) "The loss in enrolment in these special biological subjects is more than compensated by the gains in the numbers of students taking courses in general biology and courses in general science, of which latter subject a *large part* concerns biology" (p. 32).

Part II of the study relates to the training of biology teachers. It represents an attempt to secure data which may lead to recommendations concerning the kind of training which teachers of biology should have along each of the following lines: (1) professional courses, (2) professional subject-matter courses, and (3) special-methods courses. To obtain these data, the author has reviewed a large number of articles in educational journals, committee reports, monographs on teacher-training, and catalogues of colleges and universities giving training and degrees in education. His results are presented under the following headings: "Conflicting Views" (of advocates of academic and of professional preparation of teachers), "Collegiate Preparation," "The Teaching Load" (or subject combinations of biology teachers), "Training in the Sciences," "Recommendations by Committees, Educators, and Institutions," "Survey of Teacher-Training Courses in Biology," and "Practice, Apprentice, or Directed Teaching."

The second part of the study represents a real contribution for those who are training science teachers. The recommendations presented by the author may be briefly summarized as follows: (1) A minimum preparation for secondary-school teaching should be a college education with courses of three types: courses intended to give a broad outlook, courses of special interest, and professional

courses. (2) In addition to professional courses in the chosen field, professional courses should include psychology, history of education, principles of secondary education, and a course involving organization, school management, and school hygiene. (3) Professionalized subject-matter courses for teachers which bear the same relation to the teacher's future work as courses for the lawyer and the physician bear to theirs are needed, attention being given to the fact that most biology teachers have to teach three or more subjects, usually science combinations. (4) Were biology teachers called upon to teach biology only, a complete elimination of special-methods courses in biology would be possible, but, under existing conditions, it seems wise to give a special-methods course in science-teaching in addition to the professionalized subject-matter courses. (5) A year's work in observation and participation in teaching science should be required as a minimum for biology teachers.

The reviewer is inclined to agree in general with the recommendations, especially those which the author bases on objective evidence. It is true that there has been in the past and is at present great overlapping or duplication in the special-methods courses in science-teaching. This would be eliminated if the author's recommendations were applied to the teacher-training curriculum in biology. There is, however, the great danger that the professionalized subject-matter courses will be nothing more than subject-matter review courses unless those in control exercise the greatest care in the organization of these courses. The teacher-training schools are not free from such would-be professionalized courses.

CHARLES J. PIEPER

A philosophical basis for changing education.—A little book¹ of three lectures by Professor Kilpatrick, of Teachers College, Columbia University, delivered last year on the Luther Laffin Kellogg Foundation at Rutgers University, presents in compact form a philosophy of education that is winning its way in our changing educational world.

The author discusses the nature of our changing civilization and finds its outstanding characteristics to be the changed mental outlook, industrialization with increasing interdependence and consequent decline of personal responsibility, and the democratic tendency. In every sphere of life authoritarianism has been waning, while change is becoming ever more rapid. Amazing material advance, however, has been accompanied by a certain intellectual-moral lag.

The author holds that the old education is inadequate for the new situation. Handing down to young people their elders' ways of behaving will not suffice for youth facing an unknown and shifting future; they must be given "more generalized methods and attitudes of attack that especially fit for meeting novel situations" (p. 62). The educational breakdown of the home and the community throws increasing responsibility on the school for developing critical-mindedness

¹ William Heard Kilpatrick, *Education for a Changing Civilization*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. vi+144.

and democracy; hence the growing demand that the school "become a place where life, real experiencing, goes on" (p. 85).

The case for modifying the educational processes to meet the demands of changing civilization is stated clearly and convincingly. The old school, "where unwilling children went daily through the grind of acquiring, for 'recitation' purposes, adult-formulated statements of race-achieved solutions to past social problems" (p. 106), must give way to a new school in which active, purposeful social experiencing is emphasized. The implications for curriculum-making are, of course, far-reaching when the curriculum is conceived of "as consisting properly of such a succession of school experiences as will best bring and constitute the continuous reconstruction of experience" (p. 123). The curriculum "uses subject matter, but it does not consist of subject matter"; it cannot be "made exactly in advance" (p. 125). In education "the only goal we can accept is one that values personality" (p. 132). "Continued growing is its essence and end" (p. 134).

In these days of curriculum reconstruction, perhaps nothing is needed by educators more than an adequate philosophy of education, a point of view that is suited to the changing world in which we live, one that "sees the essential character of our age and its imperative need for better education" (p. 136). Today curriculum-makers and teachers must face squarely the implications of the new philosophy of education set forth in this book.

DAVID GUSTAFSON

Analyzing courses in health.—All phases of the public-school curriculum are being subjected to critical analysis and evaluation. The content of courses of study in each subject is being examined and analyzed from the standpoint of its completeness, the basis of its selection, its pedagogical and psychological organization, and its scientific accuracy. As a result of such analyses, various defects in the present curriculum are being discovered, and important criteria are being established whereby the curriculum of the future may be organized and evaluated on a more scientific basis.

In view of the increasing recognition of the importance of health education, a critical study¹ of courses of study in health is very opportune. In a thorough and comprehensive investigation the author examined eighteen courses of study in health, fourteen textbooks on health, and several issues of two magazines devoted to health education. From these sources were collected and tabulated all the statements relating to health, such as "what to do to live healthily, how to do it, and why to do it"; the grade placement and the frequency of mention of such statements were noted. In this manner, 4,227 distinct statements were collected, representing a total frequency of 12,520. These statements were or-

¹ Ruth Strang, *Subject Matter in Health Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 222. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. Pp. 108. \$1.50.

ganized under twenty-six main topics, such as food, cleanliness, disease, posture, air, sunlight, teeth, clothes, sleep and rest, and eyes. By far the largest number of statements (2,679) referred to food.

As indicated by the author, the purpose of the study was to furnish a quantitative description of the material examined, to evaluate this material with reference to its usefulness to teachers and pupils and its scientific accuracy, and to suggest ways of using the data.

The usefulness of the material is considered under such topics as "Types of Undesirable Statements Found Which Ought To Be Avoided," "Types of Desirable Statements Which Ought To Be Included but Which Are Frequently Omitted," and "Types of Undesirable Organization of Material." The evaluation of the scientific accuracy of the statements was made by submitting them to one or more experts in the field or by referring them to a "reliable" book or journal. Undesirable statements from courses of study are characterized as vague, exaggerated, undefined or obvious, unrelated to health, indicating negative habits, emphasizing end results, calling forth responses the reverse of what is desired, and unqualified by references to individual differences. Defects in the organization of the material in courses of study are as follows: the centers of organization are abstract and remote from child experiences; the outlines are illogical from the standpoint of subject matter and English; the material is arranged in a disjointed and fragmentary manner; and emphasis on the relative importance of various statements is neglected.

A commendable feature of the study is the care with which suggestions for using the material have been made and the detailed manner in which the suggestions proposed have been tested and illustrated. For example, it is suggested that facts about health will be more effectively learned if presented in connection with such situations as "using leisure time after school in the city," "protecting others when you have a cold," "buying a pair of shoes," and "how to avoid accidents from street traffic." More than seven pages is devoted to detailed illustrations of how the material might be organized around situations of this sort. It is contended that the acquisition of information about health in connection with situations gives practice in perceiving the health aspects in situations, provides proper associative centers which have a functioning value, and insures greater transfer later. A clearer conception of the type of organization suggested may be secured from the following quotation from a paragraph on "an organization having as its center a situation which the child is meeting or might meet in later life."

In such an organization the habits of acting and feeling connected with the situation in school would stand a better chance of functioning in similar situations outside of school, as would also the knowledge which might motivate and modify them. Such an organization would not be in the form of a bare outline but would include the detailed steps necessary in securing the desired result. It would not be a cataloguing of habits but an association center of related habits and knowledge definite enough to guide action and vivid enough to motivate it [p. 72].

Following the suggestion that the data provide a fruitful source of facts from which tests of health knowledge may be formulated, the author has employed the material in formulating a very unique and valuable type of test. The practicability of this test has been thoroughly tested, and suggestions for its use are indicated.

The study is important because it presents in an organized manner a large amount of useful information relative to a subject of vital import and includes a critical analysis and evaluation of this material and suggestions for its use. The study is particularly significant from the standpoint of the practical suggestions for the use of the material. These suggestions have been formulated with extreme care. The use of the material in constructing a test of health knowledge and in organizing it around situations has been illustrated in a detailed, practical manner, which leaves no doubt in the mind of the reader as to the feasibility of the plans proposed.

R. S. NEWCOMB

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